ITHLY LABOR REVIEW

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Older Workers in Airplane Propeller Factory

Photo by courtesy of Farm Security Administration

In this issue . . . Defense Housing Policies and Progress • Development of British War Labor Policy • Strikes in 1940 • Earnings in Paper Products Industry

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR MAY 1941

DEFENSE HOUSING POLICIES AND PROGRESS

By THEODORE A. VEENSTRA, *Labor Division, Office of Production Management*

Summary

IN ORDER to meet housing problems arising from an influx of workers in centers of defense activity, the Division of Coordination of National Defense Housing was created in the Office of Emergency Management of the Executive Office of the President. This division has as its chief function the coordination of the activities of the various governmental housing agencies and of private industry to meet defense housing problems.

An appropriation of $150,000,000 was made to the Federal Works Administrator for defense housing, and legislation is in process to increase this amount by an additional $150,000,000. In addition, the Army and Navy were given $100,000,000 to provide family housing in defense areas; the powers of the United States Housing Authority were broadened to permit it to undertake projects for defense workers; and a new agency, the Defense Homes Corporation, was created and provided with equity capital to develop economically sound housing projects in defense areas where private building is lagging. The Urgency Deficiency Appropriation Act, approved March 1, 1941, included an appropriation of $5,000,000 to provide temporary stop-gap housing in defense areas while permanent housing is being constructed. In addition to these direct authorizations for Government housing, the National Housing Act was amended to permit the Federal Housing Administration to insure up to 90 percent of the appraised value of low-cost properties without the restriction that such properties must be owner-occupied.

The defense housing program is divided into four parts. The first covers the registration of all vacant houses and rooms and the promotion of such other activities as will assure that the best use is made of available housing in each area. The second is the determination of the need for additional housing, the part that private enterprise

can and will play in meeting such need, and the amount which must be provided by public agencies. The third is the planning and construction of the programmed housing, and the fourth is the management together with the establishment of policies respecting rentals and tenant selection.

In the determination of defense housing needs, a three-point research program has been developed. This program includes for each defense community—

1. A survey of labor requirements and labor supply for the purpose of estimating the number and type of workers who will be imported.
2. A survey of vacant dwellings and rooms to determine the amount of available housing.
3. A survey of the housing market to determine the prospect for private building.

To provide facts on the adequacy of the housing program, surveys of rent changes and of actual private construction are also under way in a large number of defense areas.

Minimum planning and construction standards have already been established, but policies with respect to rentals and tenant selection are in the process of formulation. However, at least one agency has adopted a policy of establishing rents according to the ability of the worker to pay without regard to the accommodations obtained. This agency has also established priorities for tenant selection which provide that the first workers to be housed shall be those domiciled outside a reasonable commuting distance.

As of April 19, 1941, funds had been allocated for 72,953 regular family dwelling units and 5,345 dormitory units to be built in 136 localities in 47 States. In addition, allocations for 2,305 trailers for family occupancy had been made. Contracts had been awarded for construction of 51,915 of the family units and for 3,801 of the dormitory units, and 8,097 dwelling units were ready for occupancy. Responsibility for site selection, planning, and construction of the allocated housing has been assigned to eight Federal agencies and to a number of local housing authorities.

Coordination and Organization of Defense Housing Activities

On July 18, 1940, there was appointed a Defense Housing Coordinator, attached to the office of the secretary of the National Defense Advisory Commission. The appointment of such an official was made necessary by the number of Federal agencies concerned with housing in one manner or another. His duties were to aid the various housing agencies in the coordination of their defense housing efforts, anticipate defense housing needs, advise as to location of plant expan-

sion, and review existing housing legislation and make recommendations for any necessary additional legislation.

Where the costs of housing construction were to be borne in whole or in part from Federal funds, the need for such housing and the standards of construction were to be certified by the Commissioner for Labor and Employment and by the Commissioner for Consumer Protection. Standards of construction were defined to include factors which affect costs and thereby rents, and factors which affect livability. The Commissioner for Labor and Employment was also to certify conditions of work on defense housing projects.

On January 11, 1941, by Executive order, the Division of Coordination of National Defense Housing was created in the Office of Emergency Management of the Executive Office of the President. The staff of the Office of Defense Housing Coordinator was transferred to this new division. According to the Executive order, the Defense Housing Coordinator, under the direction of the President, in cooperation with all defense agencies, and utilizing the services of the Federal housing agencies to the fullest, is—

1. To coordinate the activities of the various agencies, public and private, concerned with defense housing.
2. To anticipate the need for housing in defense centers by means of studies and surveys.
3. To recommend to the President defense housing programs, thereby avoiding duplication and delay.
4. To take whatever action necessary to facilitate the execution of the housing program.
5. To advise private and Federal agencies on all the factors involved in developing and operating approved defense housing projects.
6. To recommend the necessary legislation to insure an adequate defense housing program.

To aid the Coordinator in performing these functions, certain regulations have been made to govern the activities of the various Federal housing agencies. They are as follows:

1. All defense housing projects shall be submitted by the Federal agency concerned to the Coordinator for review and recommendation. The Coordinator's recommendations shall cover all pertinent details.
2. Each Federal housing agency shall furnish to the Coordinator for review and recommendation all standards for the development, operation, and management of the defense housing projects.
3. All site locations for defense housing shall be cleared through the Coordinator's office.
4. Each Federal housing agency shall, on request, furnish the Coordinator with all data relating to housing needs and housing markets it may possess and cooperate with the Coordinator in obtaining and developing additional information.
5. All surveys and investigations relating to housing needs in defense localities shall clear through the Coordinator's Office.
6. Each Federal agency on request shall furnish the Coordinator with such progress reports as may be necessary to expedite the defense housing program.

Legislation and Available Funds

Three different acts were passed by Congress during the summer and fall of 1940 to make funds available for defense housing.

In order that the United States Housing Authority might be enabled to aid in defense housing, its powers were considerably broadened by passage of the "Navy Speed-up Bill," Public Act 671, approved June 28, 1940. Under Title II of this act, the USHA may aid the War and Navy Departments to provide dwellings for enlisted men and for civilian workers at or near naval or military reservations, posts or bases and industrial establishments engaged in defense activities. Such aid may consist of furnishing technical assistance or transferring the necessary funds. In addition, the Authority may itself undertake the development and administration of projects to house defense workers in areas where the President may determine there is an acute housing shortage or may extend financial assistance to public housing agencies for the development and administration of such projects.

To facilitate the Authority's participation in defense housing, several limitations on its powers were lifted. For the purposes of defense housing, substandard dwellings equal in number to the new units being built need not be eliminated; selection of tenants need not be restricted to those of low income; a part of the development cost of the project need no longer be met by local authorities; the restriction that a single State cannot receive more than 10 percent of the Authority's funds was removed; and the Authority is permitted the use of the Federal powers to acquire land. To speed up the defense program further, slum projects for which funds have already been allocated may qualify as defense projects.

Public Act 849, the so-called Lanham Act, approved October 14, 1940, authorized the appropriation of $150,000,000 to the Federal Works Administrator to house the families of enlisted men, civilian employees of the armed forces, and industrial defense workers in those areas where the President finds that an acute shortage of housing exists or impends which would impede the defense program and where such housing would not be provided by private capital when needed. The act limits the average cost of the dwellings to $3,000 ($4,000 outside continental United States) and the maximum cost per dwelling to $3,950 ($4,750 outside continental United States). Construction contracts can be on the cost-plus-fixed-fee basis, with labor being paid the prevailing wage and time and a half for overtime. Only 3 percent of the total cost of the project may be used for community facilities. The Administrator may make use of any of the offices attached to the Federal Works Agency, or he may call on other Federal agencies to assist him. On February 19, 1941, a bill amending the Lanham Act by increasing the authorization by $150,000,000 was introduced in the

House. It was passed there on March 13 and by the Senate on April 3.

Public Act 781, known as the Second Supplemental National Defense Appropriation Act, approved September 9, 1940, appropriated $100,000,000 for the War and Navy Departments to house enlisted men of the Army and Navy and their families, field civilian employees of the Army and Navy, and civilian workers employed in private industrial establishments engaged in essential defense industries. In carrying out the provisions of the act, the Secretaries of War and the Navy may utilize other agencies. The average cost per housing unit is limited to $3,500, including land, utilities, and facilities, and construction labor is to be paid the prevailing wage with time and a half for overtime.

In addition to these legislative provisions for defense housing, the President, on August 21, 1940, allotted out of emergency funds available to him, $10,000,000 for the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to assist in financing defense housing. The Lanham Act later provided that the President's emergency funds were to be reimbursed for this allocation from such appropriations as were made under that act. The Defense Homes Corporation was created to use these funds as equity capital for defense housing projects. Mortgages on such projects would be insured by the Federal Housing Administration and mortgage money would be provided either by private investors or by the RFC Mortgage Corporation. Such mortgage money, together with the $10,000,000 allotted by the President, made available another $50,000,000 for defense housing purposes.

As the defense housing program developed, the need for additional housing legislation grew apace. That private initiative might be aided in undertaking its share of the defense housing burden, House Resolution 3575, an amendment to the National Housing Act, was introduced in Congress during January, was passed by both Houses, and was approved on March 28, 1941. This amendment, known as Title VI, lifts certain previous restrictions on mortgage financing in defense areas, and creates a $10,000,000 Defense Housing Insurance Fund.

Under Title VI, low-cost properties in defense areas ($4,000 for a single-family dwelling, up to $10,500 for a four-family dwelling) may be insured up to 90 percent of the appraised value without the previous requirements of owner occupancy and of a 10-percent cash equity. The amount of mortgages insured under Title VI is limited to $100,000,000, and after June 30, 1942 (or earlier termination of the emergency) no further mortgages may be insured under this title.

The Urgent Deficiency Appropriation Act, Public Act 9, 77th Congress, included an appropriation of $5,000,000 to the President to enable him to provide temporary stop-gap housing in defense areas

while permanent housing is being constructed. This act was approved on March 1, 1941.

QUESTION OF RENT CONTROL

Thus far no legislation has been passed providing for rent control. The National Defense Advisory Commission does not recommend a general policy of rent control.[1] Its attitude is that legislation to control rents should be resorted to only after all other means of maintaining fair rents have proved either inapplicable or ineffective. Realizing, however, that in some communities where the influx of defense workers is very rapid and the supply of houses very inadequate, there might be an exorbitant rise in rents unless curbed by legislation, the Consumers Division, with the assistance of a panel of advisers, drew up a model rent-control act, suggested for use by States and municipalities. On March 3, 1941, a bill (H. R. 3736) to regulate rents in the District of Columbia was introduced in the House and referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia. Rent-control legislation has also been introduced in the legislatures of at least two States.[2] The general procedure under the proposed legislation is to stabilize rents as of a given date, with due allowance for changes in costs. Provisions are made for the review of complaints of both landlords and tenants.

Planning the Defense Housing Program

There are four main steps in the planning of the defense housing program. The purpose of the first two is to prevent, or at least minimize, the development of a housing problem. First, insofar as possible, the contracts are let and new production facilities allocated in such a way as to promote the use of locally resident workers and to prevent the necessity of large-scale migration of labor. Under the present program, consideration is given to the availability of labor and the existence of adequate housing when new plants or plant expansions are up for approval, but of necessity other factors frequently outweigh these two and contracts are awarded to localities having neither an adequate labor supply nor sufficient housing.

Second, after contracts are let, efforts are made to make the best use of the available labor supply. This is chiefly a problem for management, the United States Employment Service and its affiliated State organizations, and public and private schools having vocational-training facilities. Through training of local workers, upgrading of present employees, and division of skilled operations, the necessity for importing skilled workers is being reduced. By provision of

[1] National Defense Advisory Commission, Consumers Division, Bulletin No. 7. Washington, January 1941.

[2] Connecticut and New York.

additional transportation facilities, the commuting area may be widened and the available local labor supply thus increased without the need for additional housing.

The third step consists in making the best use of all available housing. This involves the registration of all vacant houses and rooms, the repair of those not in condition to be occupied, and the conversion, where feasible, of existing structures to accommodate more families. In January 1941, a Homes Registration Division was created in the Office of Defense Housing Coordination to advise housing committees established by local defense councils. The Division is now assisting local groups to organize the central registration of vacant rooms and houses. Such a registration, in addition to making vacancies more readily available to defense workers, will provide a source of information as to the number of vacant houses. These local committees will also promote the repair and conversion of existing housing. There is a real danger that these committees when controlled by interests opposed to public housing will, in their zeal to prevent such housing, encourage overcrowding and the deterioration of neighborhoods of single family houses.

Fourth, when it appears that the demand for labor may exceed the number of resident unemployed and that the supply of vacant houses and rooms may be insufficient for incoming workers, it must be determined if additional housing is needed, and if so, how much, and what kind.

Certain facts are needed for such a determination. It is necessary to know the number of workers to be brought in from outside the commuting area and their classification, particularly by marital status and expected earnings. It is also necessary to know the amount of existing available housing, its condition, and its cost. With this information it is possible to estimate how much additional housing is required, whether in the form of rooms, or of family dwelling units, and at what cost to the occupants.

To obtain labor information, the Coordinator of Defense Housing has requested the Labor Division of the Office of Production Management to initiate surveys of labor requirements in a large number of communities. These surveys have been conducted for the Labor Division by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the Department of Labor and by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board. As of March 1, 1941, surveys had been requested for 133 communities ranging from rural areas to large, populous, metropolitan areas. Reports have been completed for 46 of these communities and arrangements have been made to obtain additional information as conditions change. Some of the reports indicate that locally resident labor will be sufficient, but the majority of the reports indicate an expected influx of workers varying from a few hundred to

50,000 or more in the major defense centers. The surveys so far completed are too few to indicate the full extent of the shift required of the country's labor supply, but that it will involve up to a million workers seems clear.

RESULTS OF HOUSING SURVEYS

To obtain information on the supply of vacant dwellings and rooms, the Work Projects Administration has been requested to conduct surveys of vacancies in 111 communities. Table 1 lists the com-

TABLE 1.—*Percentage of Dwelling Units Vacant in Selected Defense Areas During Winter of 1940–41* [1]

Area and month	Gross vacancy	Net rental vacancy	
		All [2]	With standard facilities [3]
	Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*
Gadsden, Ala.—December	2.0	1.3	
Mobile area, Ala.—January	1.7	.8	0.6
San Francisco, Calif.—do	5.1	1.4	1.2
Bridgeport, Conn.—December	.9	.4	.4
Stamford, Conn.—March	1.4	1.0	.8
Waterbury, Conn.—February	1.0	.3	.3
Washington, D.C.—January	2.5	1.9	1.8
Alton, Ill.—do	1.3	.6	.4
East St. Louis, Ill.—do	1.3	.8	.5
Indianapolis, Ind.—do	2.5	1.4	.9
Kansas City, Kans.—do	2.9	1.9	.8
Portland, Maine.—do	5.1	3.0	2.0
Baltimore, Md.—do	2.7	1.3	1.1
Hagerstown, Md.—do	1.4	.6	.6
Boston-Brookline, Mass.—do	4.3	2.5	2.0
Central and southeast Boston, Mass.—do	5.0	2.6	1.9
Quincy area, Mass.—do	3.3	2.0	1.8
Charlestown area, Mass.—do	2.6	1.5	1.1
Detroit, Mich.—February	2.2	.9	.9
Muskegon, Mich.—January	1.6	1.1	.4
Pontiac, Mich.—February	1.6	.5	.4
Saginaw, Mich.—do	2.1	.9	.5
Bay City-Essexville, Mich.—do	1.5	.7	.5
Midland, Mich.—do	1.4	.3	.2
Kansas City, Mo.—do	4.1	2.5	1.9
Independence, Sugar Creek and intercity area, Mo.—do	1.9	1.2	.9
St. Louis, Mo.—do	5.3	4.2	2.5
Northern New Jersey:			
Newark.—do	2.6	1.9	1.4
Kearny.—do	1.0	.5	.4
Harrison.—do	2.3	1.0	.4
Northern New Jersey—Con.			
Elizabeth.—February	1.5	1.0	.8
Irvington.—do	1.4	1.2	1.2
Orange-East Orange.—do	2.4	1.8	1.6
Belleville.—do	1.4	.9	.5
Jersey City-Bayonne.—do	4.1	2.3	1.7
Paterson-Passaic-Hackensack.—do	1.4	.6	.5
Albany, N. Y.—do	5.5	3.4	2.0
Elmira, N. Y.—March	2.9	1.3	1.0
Schenectady, N.Y.—January	2.1	1.0	.6
Syracuse, N. Y.—February	2.5	1.9	1.5
Troy, N. Y.—do	4.7	2.2	1.4
Utica, N. Y.—January	2.8	2.0	1.5
Wilmington, N. C.—February	3.9	.7	.5
Cincinnati, Ohio.—January	3.4	2.2	1.4
Allentown-Bethlehem, Pa.—do	1.3	.6	.5
Beaver County, Pa.—February	1.6	1.0	.6
Ellwood City, Pa.—January	1.5	.7	.4
Harrisburg, Pa.—February	2.0	1.2	.9
Reading, Pa.—January	2.2	1.5	1.1
Pittsburgh, Pa.—February	2.2	1.3	1.0
Monongohela Valley.—do	1.0	.4	.2
Allegheny Valley.—do	1.2	.6	.5
Ohio Valley.—do	1.9	1.0	.8
Titusville, Pa.—January	1.8	.7	.4
Williamsport, Pa.—February	1.1	.5	.4
Columbia, S. C.—do	1.9	.6	.5
Dallas-Grand Prairie, Tex.—do	4.9	3.5	3.3
Seattle, Wash.—January	3.4	1.6	.9
Charleston, W. Va.—do	2.4	1.2	1.1
Morgantown, W. Va.—do	1.7	.8	.6
Beloit, Wis.—February	1.3	.7	.6
Manitowoc, Wis.—January	2.2	1.1	1.0

[1] Data supplied by Federal Work Projects Administration.
[2] Percent of dwelling units for rent in good condition or needing only minor repairs.
[3] Percent of dwelling units for rent in good condition or needing only minor repairs and having all the following standard facilities:—installed heating, gas or electric light, running water, flush toilet, bathing unit.

munities for which surveys have been completed and shows the percentage of vacancies in dwelling units. Gross vacancy percentages which include houses under construction, those for sale only, and those unfit for habitation varied from 0.9 percent in Bridgeport, Conn., to 5.5 percent in Albany, N. Y. Net rental vacancies, including only houses for rent and in good condition or needing only minor repairs, varied from 0.3 percent in Midland, Mich., and Waterbury, Conn., to 4.2 percent in St. Louis, Mo. The number of vacant dwellings having all standard facilities was still lower in practically all areas. Of the 62 communities covered in table 1, 42 had net rental vacancy percentages of less than 1.5. Since in many of these areas defense activity has but recently gotten under way and will not reach a peak for some time, substantial changes can be expected in these percentages and resurveys will be needed.

A number of vacancy surveys were also made by the WPA in the late summer and early fall of 1940 for several centers of great defense activity. Because of the difference in the techniques of gathering the information, figures for these areas were not included in table 1. Vacancy percentages for some of the outstanding defense centers covered during those months were as follows:

		Percent of—	
		Gross vacancy	Net rental vacancy
Hartford, Conn	September	0.9	0.5
Bath, Maine	August	1.3	.5
Dayton, Ohio	September	1.0	.5
Chester, Pa	August	1.0	.3
Newport News, Va	do	.2	.1
Camden, N. J	do	1.7	.5
New London, Conn	October	1.5	.7

SURVEYS OF BUILDING INDUSTRY

If it seems apparent from the information on labor requirements and on available dwellings, that additional housing will have to be provided for incoming defense workers, a determination is made of the part the private construction industry can play in providing such additional housing. To assist in this determination, the Federal Housing Administration is asked to make a survey of the building industry in each community with respect to (a) the long-run normal needs of the community, (b) the capacity of the local building industry, (c) the current building rate, and (d) prospects and definite plans for new construction. With this information the Defense Housing Coordinator determines what part of the required housing can be provided by private industry. For the remainder he prepares a program of Federal construction or Federally aided construction.

FACTORS INVOLVED IN PLANNING DEFENSE HOUSING

The determination of a housing program cannot be regarded as final. Additional contracts allocated to a community may change labor requirements and thus the need for housing. Moreover, judgment factors enter into every phase of the calculation of defense housing needs from the estimate of labor inflow to the estimate of the amount that can be constructed by the private building industry. As the defense program proceeds, these judgments must be modified and redeterminations made.

The actual planning of the public defense housing program in the community depends on various factors, such as the type of workers to be housed, the expected duration of their employment, their incomes and the amount of rent which they can pay, the race of the workers, the prevailing type of dwellings in the community, and the amount of substandard housing in the community.

This information is, in general, provided either by the labor report or by the Federal Housing Administration's report. It has a bearing not only on the planning of the projects but also on the selection of the construction agency. For example, where there is a need for a long-run slum-clearance program the obvious construction (and management) agency is the local housing authority, if one exists, or the United States Housing Authority, if there is no local authority. Where projects may eventually be used to rehouse Farm families now living in substandard houses, the Farm Security Administration is the obvious choice for the construction agency.

Other factors must play a part in determining the agency to which construction and management are allocated. These factors are the availability of funds of the construction agency, the type of personnel (e. g., civilian versus enlisted personnel) to be housed, and the availability of facilities to carry on the work. The Defense Housing Coordinator can recommend the agency which, in his opinion, is best fitted to carry out all the purposes of the defense housing project. The actual determination of the construction agency must be made by those officials who have jurisdiction over the funds—the Federal Works Administrator with respect to Lanham Act funds, the Army and the Navy with respect to funds provided by Public Act 781, and the Defense Homes Corporation with respect to RFC funds. Table 2 (p. 1076). shows the distribution of projects among the various construction agencies by funds, as of April 19, 1941.

When a defense housing program has been planned for a locality, the Defense Housing Coordinator circulates a proposed program among the various housing agencies, members of the Defense Advisory Commission, and officials of the Office of Production Management. Changes are made in the proposed program if the comments received from these agencies and officials indicate the need, and the program

is then submitted to the President as a recommendation of the Defense Housing Coordinator. The program is accompanied by a factual statement setting forth the nature of the defense activity and summarizing all information having a bearing on the need for defense housing. With this information before him, the President makes a finding regarding the need for public defense housing and directs the appropriate agency to proceed with the planning and construction of the required housing.

Prosecution of the Defense Housing Program

The agency to which responsibility is assigned for a given project may reassign the construction work within the limits of the authority granted to it by its enabling legislation. Under the Lanham Act, the Federal Works Administrator assigns projects to the Public Building Administration, to local housing authorities through the United States Housing Authority, or to local housing authorities direct, as well as to the Navy, the Farm Security Administration, and the Tennessee Valley Authority. In addition, a small number of projects are being handled directly by the Office of the Federal Works Administrator. The Army has assigned most of its projects under Public Act 781 to the Federal Works Administrator, who in turn reassigned the majority of them to the Public Buildings Administration. The United States Housing Authority has assigned most of its projects under Public Act 671 to local housing authorities. A transfer of Authority funds was also made to the Army and Navy for a limited number of projects (see table 2).

Both the Lanham Act (Public 849) and Public 781 permit the negotiation of cost-plus-fixed-fee contracts for the construction of defense housing. Practically all contracts let to date have been of this type. On the other hand, contracts under Public 671 have been let on the basis of advertised bids. Section 303 of Public 781 provides that "wages * * * shall be computed on a basic day rate of 8 hours per day and work in excess of 8 hours per day shall be permitted upon compensation for all hours worked in excess of 8 hours per day at not less than one and one-half times the basic rate of pay." The Lanham Act, carrying the same provision with respect to overtime work, also provides that not less than the prevailing wages shall be paid, and arrangements have been made for a determination of prevailing wages by the Secretary of Labor under the Davis-Bacon Act. Projects under Public 781 are automatically under provisions of this act.

Policies and Standards

Not all the policies which will be pursued in the defense housing program have been formulated. However, certain policies with

respect to the determination of the need, the allocation of construction work, use of the project after the emergency, and the type of housing to be built are now fairly clear. Defense housing will be built primarily in those localities where the housing need is occasioned by an influx of defense workers or of enlisted personnel. Housing needs occasioned by "undoubling" of families already resident may receive some attention, but localities in which there is no importation of workers will have difficulty in getting defense housing projects, no matter how serious the local housing situation.

POLICIES REGARDING PRIVATE ENTERPRISE

The Defense Housing Coordinator has announced that private enterprise will be given every opportunity to meet the defense housing needs before Government housing is planned. However, he has stated that where private enterprise cannot meet the expected need in time, Government housing will be planned. The chief problem involved in this policy is in evaluating the extent to which private enterprise is providing the kind of housing required by defense workers, and of estimating how much of this kind of housing it will provide in the future. It is generally agreed that where local expansion is caused by the expansion of a single plant devoted exclusively to defense production, which is unlikely to have nondefense uses after the emergency, private enterprise cannot afford to build houses, and all construction must be from Government funds. It is also agreed that if the expansion will result in the importation of large numbers of low-income families, the Federal Government will have to provide housing. This group will include the families of certain grades of enlisted personnel where allowances for shelter run as low as $11 per month, as well as the families of industrial workers with low wages. In other cases the total amount of new housing required is so much larger than what would appear to be the long-run capacity of the community to absorb it, that private enterprise may be reluctant to build all that is required in time to prevent overcrowding and high rents.

USE OF DEFENSE HOUSING AFTER THE EMERGENCY

Another policy which seems to have been fairly well formulated relates to the use of public defense housing after the emergency. The Lanham Act states that defense housing is to be disposed of, after the emergency, in the public interest. This is being interpreted as including the use of defense housing projects for low-income families after the emergency, and permanent housing is being planned for many communities even though no permanent increase is expected in the community's population. A plan involving the eventual ownership of the homes by defense workers is being experimented with in at least one locality (Camden, N. J.). This plan, known as "The

Camden Plan," provides that defense workers are to be credited with certain reserves built up from their regular monthly rental payments, which reserves can eventually be used for the purchase of equities in their homes.[3]

The Farm Security Administration has been allocated a number of projects with the idea that such projects will be used after the emergency to house low-income farm families now living in substandard housing. In addition, the Farm Security Administration has been given much of the responsibility for operating the program of stopgap housing, in order that the trailers and other housing facilities furnished by this program may be converted to use by migratory workers when their temporary use for housing defense workers has ceased.

It is not to be expected that public defense housing will be dumped on the market in wholesale lots at the termination of the present emergency as it was after the war of 1914–18. Experiences following that war, when there was a rush to dispose of wartime housing to private investors, are in the minds of those responsible for the present housing program and it appears that every effort will be made to prevent the depressive effects on real estate values and private building which were felt by many of the communities in which wartime housing was built.

The use of defense housing projects after the emergency is closely related to the type of housing to be built. The Housing Coordinator has recommended the construction of demountable or high-salvage-value housing in a fairly large number of localities where, in his opinion, the community cannot absorb the projects, either by sale to private owners or by conversion to slum-clearance projects. The final responsibility for the disposition of the projects, however, rests with the agencies having jurisdiction over the appropriate funds. From the record of contracts let to date, it would appear that the Federal Works Agency is inclined to build permanent houses in any urban community where there is a chance that the houses will have permanent value. The Navy, on the other hand, has built a substantial amount of prefabricated and demountable housing.

TENANT SELECTION AND MANAGEMENT

Policies related to tenant selection and management have not yet been definitely formulated by the Housing Coordinator's Office, although the Federal Works Administrator has issued statements covering these policies.[4] With respect to tenant selection, the Federal

[3] Explanation of the Proposed "Camden Plan," from remarks by Lawrence Westbrook, Special Assistant to the Federal Works Administrator to the Eastern States Institute of Public Housing, March 22, 1941 Philadelphia, Pa.

[4] Federal Works Agency. Press release, February 7, 1941. F. W. A. 3612.

Works Administrator has established rules and priorities as to the eligibility of defense workers. Eligibility for admission to a defense housing project is to be confined to those families of which the head is engaged, or about to be engaged, in work connected with and essential to the national defense. Those families which can be adequately housed by private enterprise at rentals within their financial reach, will not be eligible except on a temporary basis if private enterprise at the time is not meeting their housing needs.

Priority will be given to eligible applicants whose domicile is beyond reasonable commuting distance, and, within this group, preference will be given first to applicants living locally with their families in purely temporary quarters; second, to applicants living locally with their families, but sharing quarters with another family; and third, to applicants desiring to bring their families from their domicile. If the above classifications of families do not fill the project, applicants domiciled within reasonable commuting distance may be considered according to their relative need.

RENTS FOR DEFENSE HOUSING

The Federal Works Administrator has also announced a policy with respect to the rents to be charged for defense housing.[5] This policy provides that on projects for occupancy by enlisted and civilian personnel of the Army or Navy, the Army or Navy shall establish rentals, subject to the approval of the Federal Works Administrator. On projects intended for occupancy by industrial workers, the applicants will be divided into a number of household income groups, and each group shall pay shelter rents based on approximately 20 percent of the minimum income for the group. The maximum shelter rent of any dwelling shall be $50 per month, regardless of household income. The size of the dwelling unit is to have no bearing on the rent paid, but occupancy standards are to be observed in the assignment of dwelling units. Household income is to be computed by adding the total income of the principal wage earner (computed on the basis of a 50-week year and the normal number of hours worked per week by the local defense industry) to one-half the total income of all other wage earners in the household (with the exception of individual incomes of less than $300 per year).

PHYSICAL STANDARDS FOR DEFENSE HOUSING

The Division of Defense Housing Coordination has issued a statement setting forth physical standards for defense housing.[6] This

[5] Federal Works Agency. Press release, February 7, 1941. F. W. A. 3614.

[6] Executive Office of the President. Office of Emergency Management. Division of Coordination of National Defense Housing. Summary of Standards for Defense Housing. Washington, January 1941.

statement is divided into two parts, one covering physical standards for permanent and demountable housing, and the other covering standards for portable housing. These standards have, for the most part, been accepted by the various construction agencies. It is stated that defense housing designed for permanent use shall comply with the minimum construction requirements of the Federal Housing Administration applicable for the locality concerned. Plumbing shall comply with the Plumbing Manual issued by the Central Housing Committee. Electrical work shall comply with the National Electrical Code, revision of 1940. Demountable or high-salvage-value construction shall follow a type of construction which has had the approval of the Federal Housing Administration

The "standards" provide a check list of important factors which must be considered in site selection, although it is realized that not all sites selected can be ideal with respect to every factor. General guides are provided for site planning, covering the provision of streets and drives, access to buildings, parking space, shopping facilities, street and yard lighting, spacing of buildings, density of land coverage, open areas, and refuse removal. Some consideration is also given to protection against air raids for projects located within 200 miles of the coast line and 250 miles from the north and south borders of the country. A general statement regarding the provision of community facilities is also included.

The standards for dwelling units provide that the minimum facilities for dwelling units shall be: Private toilet and bathing facilities, one bedroom, one living room, dining space in the kitchen or living room, permanently installed cooking facilities, or space for their installation, and outside connections for water adequate to service yard spaces. Minimum standards for room sizes are also given. Room arrangements are to be such as to insure privacy of individuals. Fairly detailed standards are established regarding air and ventilation, ceiling heights, closet and storage space, equipment, and facilities.

Status of the Defense Housing Program

As of April 19, 1941, funds had been allocated for 72,953 regular family dwelling units and 5,345 dormitory units to be built in 136 localities in 47 States. In addition, allocations for 2,035 trailers for family occupancy had been made. Contracts had been awarded for construction of 51,915 of the family units and for 3,801 of the dormitory units, and 8,097 dwelling units were ready for occupancy.

The status of defense housing projects by legal authorization and construction agency as of April 19, 1941, is shown in table 2. This table shows the number of units allocated, the number of units under contract, and the number of units completed by authorization and by construction agencies. It will be noted that construction contracts

have been let on most of the units allocated under Public 671 and Public 781. Less progress has been made under Public 849, largely because funds under this authorization were made available at a somewhat later date and many of the allocations were made during recent months. Considerable work must be done in planning and in site selection before a project is ready for contract. Another partial explanation of the more rapid progress in letting contracts under Public 781 is that a substantial number of these projects were on military or naval reservations, and there was no problem of selecting and acquiring a site. Altogether there are eight Federal agencies handling the construction of defense homes. These agencies are the Army, Navy, Office of the Federal Works Administrator, Public Buildings

TABLE 2.—*Status of Defense Housing Projects, by Authorization and Construction Agency, as of April 19, 1941* [1]

Legal authorization and construction agency	Family dwelling units			Units for single persons		
	Allocated	Under construction contract	Completed	Allocated	Under construction contract	Completed
Projects authorized by 76th Congress:						
Public 671, for construction through—						
Local housing authorities [2]	6,344	6,294	2,515			
Army	325					
Navy	1,400	1,400				
Total	8,069	7,694	2,515			
Public 781 and 849:						
Under Public 781 for construction by—						
Army	825					
Navy	14,660	14,535	3,110			
Total	15,485	14,535	3,110			
Under Public 849, by transfer of funds from Public 781 for construction by Public Buildings Administration	13,055	10,379	880			
Under Public 849, for construction by—						
Office of Federal Works Administrator	1,500	800				
Public Buildings Administration	13,015	8,440		750		
Local housing authorities with USHA [3]	13,305	5,993	1,573			
Local housing authorities, direct	850	350				
Navy	1,000	1,000		1,400	1,400	
Farm Security Administration	1,350	100				
Tennessee Valley Authority	250	200				
Assignment not yet made	2,200			295		
Total	33,470	16,883	1,573	2,445	1,400	
Projects of Defense Homes Corporation	2,874	2,424	19			
Grand total	72,953	51,915	8,097	2,445	1,400	
Projects authorized by 77th Congress—Public 9—for construction by Farm Security Administration [4]	2,035	1,859		2,900	2,401	

[1] Weekly Summary Report of Division of Defense Housing Coordination, includes all allocations of public funds authorized by Public 671 and 781, 76th Cong.; findings under Public 849, 76th Cong.; findings under Public 9, 77th Cong., and projects approved by the Board of Directors of the Defense Homes Corporation.

[2] In addition to the projects included in this table which are being constructed specifically for defense housing purposes, four projects constructed by local housing authorities as low-rent projects under the regular USHA program have been converted in part to defense use. In this way, 433 dwelling units have been reserved for occupancy by families of enlisted men or other defense workers.

[3] Includes 1,573 completed units purchased by the USHA under Public 849.

[4] Trailers for family dwelling units and dormitories for single persons.

Administration, United States Housing Authority, Farm Security Administration, Tennessee Valley Authority, and Defense Homes Corporation. In addition, substantial numbers of local housing authorities are acting as construction agencies either through the United States Housing Authority or as direct agents of the Federal Works Administrator.

The Federal Works Administrator has a primary responsibility for 13,055 units allocated under Public 781 and for 33,470 units allocated under Public 849 (the Lanham Act). All the Public 781 projects assigned to the Federal Works Administrator are being handled by the Public Buildings Administration, whereas allocations under Public 849 have been divided among six Federal agencies and a number of local housing authorities. The greater number of these latter projects, however, have been assigned to either the Public Buildings Administration or to the United States Housing Authority, acting through local housing authorities. Trailers and dormitories authorized under Public 9, 77th Congress, have been placed under the jurisdiction of the Farm Security Administration with the exception of ship dormitories which are being assigned to the Maritime Commission.

TABLE 3.—*Allocation of Defense Housing Projects, by Authorization and Purpose, as of April 19, 1941* [1]

Legal authorization	Total units	Number of family dwelling units for—			
		Civilian industrial workers—		Other civilians [3]	Enlisted personnel
		In private industry	In Government plants [2]		
Projects authorized by Public 671, 76th Congress	8,069	1,500	3,096	682	2,791
Projects authorized by Public 781 and 849, 76th Congress:					
Under Public 781	15,485	2,400	1,880	4,582	6,623
Under Public 849 by transfer of funds from Public 781	13,055		250	1,917	10,888
Under Public 849	33,470	18,550	6,920	2,304	5,696
Projects of Defense Homes Corporation	2,874	1,530	880	464	
Grand total of regular family dwelling units [4]	72,953	23,980	13,026	[5] 9,949	[5] 25,998
Projects authorized by Public 9, 77th Congress (trailers)	2,035	1,835	200		

[1] Source: Weekly Summary Report, Division of Defense Housing Coordination.
[2] Arsenals, navy yards, and Government-operated powder plants and ordnance works.
[3] Civilian employees of the Army and the Navy other than those in Government-operated industrial plants.
[4] In addition to family dwelling units allocations have been made for 5,345 units to house single persons. These are divided, by purpose, as follows: 3,150 units for single civilian industrial workers in private industry, 1,900 units for single civilian employees in Government plants, and 295 units for single civilians of the Army and the Navy other than those in Government-operated industrial plants.
[5] The division between civilian and enlisted personnel of the Army and Navy is as yet undetermined in a number of projects; in such cases the ratio of civilian to enlisted personnel in other joint projects in which a specific break-down is available has been used to determine a definite number for each category for use in the tabulation.

The largest number of projects completed to date have been those authorized under Public 671 and Public 781. The 1,573 dwelling units listed as completed under Public 849, are all in finished but

unoccupied projects purchased from local housing authorities. It is expected that some additional purchases of this nature will soon be made.

A division of the dwelling units under the program, to April 19, 1941, according to the type of defense personnel to be housed is given by table 3. Of the 72,953 regular family dwelling units planned, approximately 37,000 are for civilian industrial workers employed either in private industrial plants or in Government-operated plants; approximately 10,000 are for civilian employees of the Army and Navy other than those in Government-operated industrial plants; and approximately 26,000 are designed for use by enlisted personnel of either the Army or the Navy.

Although the above figures indicate substantial progress in planning and prosecuting a defense housing program, critical housing situations have developed in many areas. For example, in the Bath, Maine, area expansion of shipbuilding activities has been under way for some time; vacancies have been practically nonexistent; and workers have been commuting excessive distances. In spite of this situation and with further expansion in view, no program has been planned to date for this community. Dayton, Ohio, is another city in which defense activities have brought about a critical housing situation seriously hampering, at least in one instance, the recruitment of labor for defense work. Programs for other areas were delayed until the evidence of need became overwhelming, vacancies had entirely disappeared, overcrowding had taken place, rents were on the increase, and workers either refusing employment or traveling excessive distances. Hartford, Conn., Akron, Ohio, and South Bend, Ind., are examples.

In a number of instances, allocations of defense housing to private industry have been excessively high as measured by past performances with respect to low-cost rental housing. In connection with the program for shipbuilding workers in the Quincy, Mass., area, 1,000 dwelling units to rent for $30 to $45 were assigned to private enterprise in November 1940. The record of building permits for Quincy and nine surrounding towns showed that in 7 months, from July 1940 to January 1941, only 338 dwelling units were constructed with permit valuations of less than $4,000. When allowances are made for understatement of value on permits and for the cost of land, the over-all cost of some of these houses would be $5,000 or more, beyond the reach of most workers. Moreover, most of these dwellings were single-family units, indicating they were for sale rather than for rent, whereas the need of migrating defense workers is for rental housing.

DEVELOPMENT OF BRITISH WAR LABOR POLICY

By MARGARET H. SCHOENFELD, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

THE exercise of Government control over labor and industry in Great Britain through wartime measures has developed gradually since late in August 1939. Recently it has been extended somewhat more rapidly, although the principle of voluntary cooperation between employers and employees, which has been relied upon throughout the war effort, continues to be basic in industrial relations. The Minister of Labor and National Service, who enforces war-labor regulations, is continuing "to interpret regulatory measures in a reasonable manner," believing it to be his function to obtain willing service rather than to resort to extreme pressure.

Control Measures of 1939

A few days before the declaration of war in September 1939 the Emergency Powers (Defense) Act was adopted in Great Britain, permitting the Government to take the necessary measures to secure the public safety, the defense of the realm, the maintenance of public order and the efficient prosecution of any war, and to maintain essential supplies and services. It was under this law that the orders-in-council, generally referred to as "defense regulations," were first issued. They have become the familiar framework for governmental action in the control of labor. Among the early defense regulations were those empowering the Government to waive the terms of the factories, mines, and quarries' laws and authorizing the Minister of Transport to impose such restrictions as he deemed proper in regard to the hours of work and rest of road-transport workers. A defense regulation also provided that a person should not be deemed guilty of an offense because he took part, or persuaded others to take part, in a strike.

A very significant labor measure of the early war period was the Control of Employment Act of 1939. It provided that, upon order of the Minister of Labor and National Service, employers in Great Britain might not advertise for employees, or hire or rehire workers, during the period of emergency created by the war. Before issuing orders under this legislation, the Minister was required to consult with organized employers and employees. Appeals against his orders were permissible.

In April 1940 the first order was issued under the above act, covering employees in the building and civil-engineering contracting industries. It specified that on or after April 24, employers might not, except with the consent of the Minister of Labor, publish any advertisement

stating that they wished to engage carpenters, joiners, or bricklayers. With this exception, compulsion as to job tenure was notably absent. However, the Government's wartime list of reserved occupations, which is revised periodically as to occupational and sex coverage and ages, afforded protection to employers from having their essential workers called for service in the armed forces.

Extension of Powers in 1940

Following the military reverses in Norway, when the new British Government took office, a legislative program was adopted which foreshadowed greater Government control of labor. The Emergency Powers (Defense) Act of May 22, 1940, prolonged the effectiveness of the earlier emergency legislation which would otherwise have lapsed in August of that year. Again provision was made for issuance of defense regulations by order-in-council, requiring persons to place themselves, their services, and their property at the disposal of His Majesty to the extent necessary to secure the public safety, to maintain public order, to facilitate efficient prosecution of the war, or to maintain supplies or services essential to the life of the community. The Minister of Labor was given unprecedented powers to control labor. Following this action the Minister established a new organization, including the Labor Supply Board.

The defense regulations were then amended by a comprehensive order (Statutory Rules and Orders, 1940, No. 781) providing for controlled undertakings and control of employment. Under the terms of this order the Minister of Supply was empowered to declare any enterprise controlled and to determine what work it should do, and the Minister of Labor was authorized to direct any person in the United Kingdom to perform any service which the Minister found him capable of doing. With the adoption of this regulation the groundwork was laid for the broadest possible labor control, with the Government directing productive labor into essential war work and limiting the manufacture of consumption goods and activity in the service trades.

Exercise of these powers developed slowly. As of June 10, employers in the engineering, building, and civil-engineering industry were forbidden to engage a worker or seek to engage one, except by reporting particulars of the vacancy to the local office of the Ministry of Labor and engaging the worker suggested by the Ministry. The same applied to male workers in agriculture and coal mining. Employers were permitted to reengage workers they had last employed within 14 days of the date of reemployment. Compulsory registration of all men, not wholly engaged on Government work in the principal engineering occupations and certain other occupations in which a shortage was believed likely was ordered on August 7.

The first step toward control of dock labor was the Dock Labor (Compulsory Registration) Order, promulgated on June 18, requiring all employers engaged in the port-transport industry to be party to any port-registration scheme instituted by the Minister of Labor. It further required that all port-transport workers should obtain their employment in accordance with the provisions of the port-registration scheme instituted to regularize port employment.

In July the Minister of Labor was empowered to issue orders designed to prevent the interruption of work by industrial disputes. This was done, effective July 25, after consultation with the British Employer's Confederation and the Trades Union Congress. Under the terms of the Conditions of Employment and National Arbitration Order of 1940, the main purpose is to prevent interruptions of work by industrial disputes. Lock-outs and strikes are prohibited unless disputes have been reported to the Minister of Labor and have not been referred by the Minister for settlement within 21 days from the date when reported. The National Arbitration Tribunal, whose decisions are binding, was not intended to displace existing machinery for handling disputes but to supplement it, when settlement is not reached by the regularly constituted bodies.

Uncertainty existed as to the extent to which the arbitration order prohibits strikes. In summarizing the terms of the arbitration order the August 1940 issue of the Ministry of Labor Gazette makes no mention of the illegality of strikes other than to state that they are prohibited unless they have been reported as stated in the preceding paragraph. The Gazette continues to publish strike statistics monthly.

Provisions of the arbitration order as to when a strike is permissible and when prohibited are clarified by a court case, as reported by the Manchester Guardian. Recently the Government ordered the arrest of six engineering apprentices for participating in a strike. Evidence brought before the Manchester City Police Court, where the case was decided, showed that they had gone on strike in connection with a trade dispute which had not been reported to the Ministry of Labor. The decision against the strikers was based on this fact, notwithstanding that they had pressed in every legitimate way to persuade the management and the union to consider their grievances. When their defense asked whether the striking apprentices had been put off on the ground that their grievances could only be settled on a national scale, the magistrate commented: "The law says they must not strike unless certain conditions are fulfilled." The defendants were paroled for 12 months on their own recognizance to maintain good behavior. Hope was expressed by the magistrate that the case would "clear the air." He added that the strikers had been badly advised.

Few additional defense regulations affecting the mobilization and employment of the labor supply were issued in the remaining months of the year 1940. The order of October 7 provided that no work of building or civil-engineering construction could be undertaken without consent from the appropriate authorities. The reason for this action was to conserve labor and materials urgently needed for the war effort. Increasing attention was directed toward meeting the labor requirements in dock work and shipbuilding through mobilization and transfer. On the whole this was a period of consolidation. A great deal of new legislation had been adopted, industry was running at greatly accelerated speed, training facilities had been expanded, and some of the adverse effects of excessive overtime were beginning to be felt. The Government showed no inclination to push its compulsory powers further.

The 1941 Program

The question of production, supply, and manpower was debated in the House of Commons on January 21 and 22, 1941. At that time the Minister of Labor submitted the Government's reasons for the changes to be made to coordinate and expedite production. In answer to the criticism that the powers granted by Parliament in May 1940 had not been used, the Minister stated: "In the main, I regard these powers as sanctions in the background, although in some cases they have been exercised. I can assure the House that unless this question is handled with very great care, we might easily do more harm than good, and hinder the war effort." He added that it was necessary to know when and how to use powers, and that the reason compulsion had not been necessary was that "the people are in dead earnest and willing to do almost anything to win this war."

In commenting on the statement made by the Minister of Labor on future labor policy, which is summarized below, the Prime Minister advised the House of Commons: "We are now about to enter, for the first time in this war, the period of manpower stringency, because for the first time we are going to have apparatus and the lay-out which this manpower will be required to handle."

With the exhaustion of the reserve of unemployed men, the Minister of Labor foresaw the recruitment of a labor force from nonessential occupations and from the unoccupied population. This, he stated, will involve a careful survey of many forms of occupation and the bringing in of women and professional men to do all kinds of men's work. Although, he said, much has already been done and will continue to be done voluntarily, the stage had been reached when it would be necessary to have industrial registration by age groups. He forecast that women who in normal circumstances would not take employment will be called into service.

It was further proposed to take the right of dismissal out of the employers' hands in order to use the labor force to the best advantage in certain types of vital war work. If persons cannot be used in a particular place, that fact will have to be reported to the Employment Department. Similarly, no employee will be permitted to leave vital work without permission from a national service officer.

Other matters were listed for which provision was necessary in the view of the Minister of Labor. Arrangement for securing reinstatement in their former employment of persons directed to transfer, on lines resembling those applied to persons in the armed forces, was proposed. A review of the question of restrictions on production was promised, dependent on registration of departures from trade-union practices and restoration of agreements after the war. Another question to be given consideration was personnel management. The Minister also stated that the Government would have to prevent systematic and organized short-time work and, if necessary, prescribe the minimum number of hours of work in any establishment. To quote the Minister, "These changes to deal with the labor situation represent a very big step, and the directions will only be used for service in the interests of the State and the war effort."

REGISTRATION ORDERS

Before the Government undertook to promulgate new orders for the mobilization of labor, drafts were submitted to and approved by the Joint Consultative Committee, representing the British Employers' Confederation and the General Council of the Trades Union Congress.

Registration for the purpose of performing civil defense work is provided for by order of January 15, 1941 (No. 26a). By its terms persons between the ages of 16 and 60 are required to register in any area to which an order may apply for the performance of part-time service. The Secretary of State is empowered to issue an order for any area in which it appears to him that the number of persons voluntarily enrolled for civil-defense duties, or any particular duty, is insufficient. When an order is issued enrollment is compulsory. Every person enrolled must comply with the directions given him as to the nature of the duties to be performed and the time, place, and manner of their performance. No remuneration is payable. Exemption is possible on medical grounds or grounds of exceptional hardship. Tribunals are to be set up to hear cases arising under the order.

The plan followed is to deal with individual industries and groups separately in issuing registration orders. Under the terms of the Industrial Registration (No. 1) Order of February 24, 1941, registration of shipbuilding workers is required. It provides for registration of male workers who have been engaged in certain specified occupations

within the past 15 years for an aggregate of not less than 12 months. Males who had attained the age of 20 years who were capable of work were required to register, on 1 of the 3 days from March 17 to 19, at a local employment exchange.

A schedule of occupations was appended to the order showing the kinds of experienced ship workers sought. They included such occupations as angle iron smith, boilermaker, craneman, driller, fitter, plumber, and riveter. Workers were exempt from the terms of the order if, at the time it came into force, they were employed in any enterprise wholly or mainly engaged in shipbuilding or ship repairing (including marine engineering where carried on in a shipyard or ship-repairing establishment).

The relative importance of work the men are engaged in and what they would do in the shipyards will be taken into account after registration.

The Fire Prevention (Business Premises) Order was issued on January 18 under the order authorizing compulsory performance of civil defense work. Occupiers of business premises in prescribed areas must satisfy the appropriate local authority that their arrangements for fire fighting are adequate. British males between 16 and 60 years of age, who work on the premises, must take turns of duty for fire-prevention purposes. Their hours of fire fighting are not to exceed 48 per month. Where voluntary arrangements can be made, compulsion is to be waived.

A program of wide-scale registration for employment followed on March 15, when the Registration for Employment Order of 1941 was signed. By its terms the Minister of Labor and National Service may from time to time require any British subject of either sex to register. The purpose is to enable the Government to survey the available labor force in the country with a view to selecting those who are likely to be useful to the war effort, whether they are employed or not. In this way, the Government is enabled to make sure that employed persons are rendering the most useful service possible and to place more citizens on jobs.

Only British citizens in Great Britain are subject to the order. Persons covered by the terms of the Armed Forces Acts are excepted. Women are excluded from coverage if actually rendering specified paid whole-time services, such as in the various recognized nursing groups. On leaving these organizations, however, they are subject to registration if they are in a class of persons that has been called upon to register.

Certain men above draft age and young women were registered, beginning in April. Following classification, and if needed, the women were to go to training schools or directly into industry, according to their qualifications, to release men for essential production.

By means of this order the services of women who do not ordinarily engage in productive labor are also utilized. In selecting the age group (20–21 years) it was anticipated that the services of the greatest number of able-bodied women and the least number of married women would be obtained. Mothers of small babies and expectant mothers were exempt.

ESSENTIAL WORK ORDER

The Essential Work (General Provisions) Order of 1941 has as its purpose prevention of loss in production through unnecessary turnover of labor or absenteeism. Application is not automatic but depends upon scheduling by the Minister of Labor of any enterprise which is engaged in "essential work," as defined in the order. Action is to be taken by the Minister if he is satisfied that it is expedient as a measure for securing the defense of the realm, the efficient prosecution of the war, or the maintenance of supplies or services essential to the life of the community. Male and female employees and the managerial staff are covered by the order.

Each establishment scheduled must be given notice in the form of a certificate. An enterprise may be scheduled provisionally for 3 months at a time, to allow prompt action where necessary as well as a review of decisions in order to see that specified conditions are fulfilled.

Before an undertaking is placed on the schedule more permanently the Minister must be satisfied that the employees are protected as to their terms of employment; for example, conditions must not be less favorable than those established by collective agreement. Once an establishment is scheduled the management forfeits the right to discharge employees, except for serious misconduct, and the employees' right to leave is strictly controlled and is, in general, subject to permission from a national service officer and at least 1 week's notice. An employee may be loaned to another establishment, without permission of a national service officer, for a period not to exceed 14 days.

A certain minimum time-rate wage is guaranteed, subject to specified conditions. However, payment is due only if the amount otherwise earned for the week by time workers or the day by piece workers (including any payment for overtime) is lower than the amount guaranteed. Collective agreements assuring workers more favorable terms are not affected by the terms of the order. A worker is entitled to the guaranteed minimum wage if he is capable of work and available for it. The guaranty does not apply in periods of sickness nor during unauthorized leave or holidays. Workers taking holidays are entitled to the payments authorized under collective agreement. A person employed in a scheduled plant must also be willing, when work in his usual occupation is not available, to perform duties assigned to him which he can reasonably be asked to perform. Appeals are allowable against assignments.

Absenteeism is dealt with under a special procedure. If a person is absent from work without reasonable excuse or is persistently late, the employer may report this to a national service officer and the latter may give the employed person directions as to future conduct in these matters. Although the worker has the right of appeal, he must follow the directions of the officer pending the appeal. This provision is not intended to prejudice any joint employer-employee arrangements which may be working satisfactorily.

Government-operated plants are scheduled for control under the order; it is contemplated that conditions substantially similar to those required from private employers will be observed.

According to a statement of the Minister of Labor, the process of putting establishments on the schedule will be carried out not for a whole industry but for single plants, although it is clear that the measure will be applied mainly to engineering trades.

CONTROL OF DOCK LABOR

To insure efficient handling of ship cargoes, a problem which has been dealt with by public action on a number of occasions since the outbreak of war, dockers are now employed direct by the British Government. Dock workers are entitled to a guaranteed minimum wage and are to be transferred from place to place in their area, as needed. This plan was placed in effect in three areas at the beginning of the pay period after March 10 and was to be applied in additional ports. The chief purpose is to speed the turn-around of ships in port and the plan was worked out by the Ministers of Labor and Transport. A greatly accelerated turn-around of ships was aimed at, the Minister of Labor stated. It is important in relation to increased rations, maintenance of the raw-material supply, and full-speed manufacture of munitions.

Registered dockers are required to report for a minimum of 11 "turns" each week (a turn consists of 4 hours) and to take any work they are suitable for and directed to do in clearing the ports in the area. The guaranteed rate of pay is 7s. 6d. per turn (7s. in smaller ports). Wherever possible, piece rates are to be paid which the Minister of Transport and the Transport and General Workers' Union have undertaken to fix. Existing piece rates will not be affected.

A man who reports for 11 turns will be paid for them at piece rates in most cases. If there is no work available for him he will receive 7s. 6d. (or 7s.). Thus the worker obtains security of payment; and, through the extra mobility furnished under Government control, dock employees are likely to have more continuous work than when they were engaged by individual employers. They will be paid weekly instead of daily, as employees of the Minister of Transport (who operates the scheme through the regional port directors).

Canteen services are to be established not only in ports affected by the plan, but in all ports. This is regarded as essential where dockers are called on to do any work at any time.

To qualify under the scheme employers (such as master stevedores) were required to register before March 8. Information on the conditions of service were circulated among the men with their pay for the week ending March 7. Acceptance was assumed unless the men gave notice to the contrary. To avoid losing the services of the local joint committees for dock labor, it was agreed that they would continue to function and assist the regional port director. Charges for services are fixed by the regional port director with the assistance of an advisory committee which he appoints for that purpose. There is no intention to interfere with the shipowners' and traders' freedom of choice between approved employers, but the official announcement states "the regional port director has certain powers."

Without waiting for shipyard and ship-repair workers to register under the order already summarized, the Admiralty was given control of labor in the industry under a plan similar to that for dock employees. The Minister of Labor continues to be responsible for the supply of labor from outside of the industry (under the Industrial Registration (No. 1) Order, 1941), and the First Lord of the Admiralty determines the most efficient use of labor within the industry. Local controls are to be placed in different areas under the flag officer-in-charge of the port, who in turn is responsible to the Board of Admiralty. Subject to approval of these officials, the local control will determine local priorities and the day-to-day allocation and interchange of labor in the district to provide for an even flow of work and to avoid idle time.

CURB ON NONWAR PRODUCTION

Another source of labor, machines, and materials that is being drawn upon for essential war work exists in the British plants and supplies heretofore used in producing goods for civil needs. Some of the more important of such goods are boots and shoes, carpets, cutlery, gloves, hosiery, knitted apparel, metal furniture, musical instruments, perfumes, pottery, and textiles. Such production is to be concentrated in a reduced number of factories. A single factory may do the work of several and the redundant plants will be closed until the end of the war. The plan calls for maintenance of records of all factories shut and of their personnel, so that people may resume their old employment when peace returns. Measures are to be taken to safeguard goodwill of the companies affected.

No compensation from public funds is contemplated to relieve firms that suffer losses. Where business losses result from industrial consolidation, it was stated on the floor of the House of Commons, it is

the clear duty of firms getting business to provide a measure of compensation for the firms that are closed. The Government has confidence that those concerned will enter group arrangements in a manner that will mitigate the hardships inevitable in the process of contraction.

Voluntary agreement within the various industries is being relied upon by the Government for the working out of proposals for effecting the necessary concentration, in consulation with the Government Departments concerned. However, the Government accepts ultimate responsibility for obtaining the necessary measure of concentration. If firms are unwilling or unable to make a satisfactory arrangement the Government will impose reorganization. No legislation would be required in applying compulsion, as the Limitation of Supply Orders issued by the Board of Trade are designed to restrict production of less essential commodities for the home market. Supplies of raw material, labor, and plants are already under Government control.

Representatives of the cotton industry were the first to respond to the appeal for industrial concentration issued by the Board of Trade to release labor for war work. The prompt action by the Cotton Board was doubtless due to the advanced stage of discussions for reducing cotton-industry operations. This was incident to the Cotton Controller's announcement, late in February 1941, of a severe restriction of supplies and distribution of raw cotton.

The Cotton Board's memorandum on this subject stated that emergency measures should be adopted in March to be followed by more comprehensive plans for action from April 1. It urged that operatives thrown out of work in March should not be treated as ordinary unemployed, but should either be drafted to other cotton employment or reserved for it, if work is likely to be available quickly. As an interim measure the Board proposed that labor exchanges should be given immediate power to direct, in cooperation with the Cotton Control Board, the movement of operatives from mills closed through cotton shortage.

The cotton workers are entitled to the utmost consideration which circumstances permit. Notwithstanding unemployment pay and trade-union benefits these workers, like other operatives, will experience real hardship, and the Cotton Board regrets that nothing more can be done than to offer them alternative employment. The Board recommended rotating work until the Ministry of Labor could arrange satisfactory alternative employment, although this method of work will not be allowed when the plan is in full operation.

In future, mills in which production is concentrated will have to be run to maximum efficiency. Therefore the Board warns that the Government must recognize that to denude the industry of all the younger and stronger operatives would damage its ability to achieve its

essential production standard. Collaboration is required among mill managers, trade-unions, and labor exchanges.

Direct quantitative control of exports to different markets is recommended by the Cotton Board, as well as central guidance by the Cotton Controller. Other problems under review include maintenance of a reserve of productive capacity against enemy action and the question of requisitioning by the Government of cotton factories. If and when a list of mills and weaving sheds is established in which approved arrangements have been made for continued operations, the Board urges that this arrangement should be permitted to continue without further change.

SOURCES.—Great Britain: Ministry of Labor, Ministry of Labor Gazette, April, June, July, August, and October 1940 and February and March 1941; Parliament, House of Commons, Debates, January 21 and 22 and March 4, 1941. U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, December 1939, January, July, and September 1940, and article "Working Conditions in British Armament Production," p. 1155 this issue. Manchester Guardian, February 19 and 28, March 5, and April 9, 1941. Reports Nos. 33 141, 149, and 151 from American Embassy, London. Labor, the Workers Magazine (Condon), February 1941.

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STRIKES IN 1940 [1]

IN SPITE of the widespread industrial expansion and increased employment in 1940, strike activity during the year, as measured by the number of workers involved, was at a comparatively low level. This is particularly evident when comparison is made over a period of years between the number of workers involved in strikes and the total working population, excluding, of course, such groups as domestic servants, teachers, and supervisory persons, among whom strikes rarely if ever occur.[2] Such a comparison shows that the number of workers involved in strikes in 1940 constituted 2.3 percent of the total workers in the country (as above defined) as compared with 4.7 percent in 1939, more than 7 percent in 1934 and 1937, and (going back to the period of the World War) with 8.4 percent in 1916 and more than 6 percent in 1917 and 1918. (See chart 2.)

According to final figures compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2,508 strikes began in 1940 in which 576,988 workers were involved.[3] The number of man-days of idleness caused by strikes during the year was 6,700,872. The number of strikes in 1940 was practically the same (96 percent as great) as in 1939; less than half (49 percent) as many workers were involved as in 1939 and the amount of idleness resulting from strikes in 1940 was less than two-fifths (38 percent) as great as in the preceding year. The general bituminous-coal stoppage in April and May of 1939 was a major factor in raising the number of workers and man-days of idleness during that year. However, the 1940 strikes involved only a little more than three-fifths as many workers and man-days as did the 1939 strikes other than the general coal stoppage.

As compared with the respective averages for the 5 years preceding the beginning of the national-defense program (1935–39) there were 12 percent fewer strikes in 1940; 51 percent as many workers were involved and 40 percent as much idleness occurred during the strikes of 1940.

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[1] Prepared in the Industrial Relations Division of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

This article has been printed as a separate pamphlet (Serial No. R. 1282). This contains two additional tables giving data on strikes in 1940, by industry and major issues involved, and by industry group for States which had 25 or more strikes during the year.

[2] It may be noted, however, that a comparison with all employed persons would not change appreciably the trend indicated by the percentages given here or in table 1.

[3] It is believed that this represents a substantially complete coverage of all strikes in which as many as 6 workers were involved and which lasted for as long as 1 working day or shift. It is possible that a few minor disputes escaped attention. The Bureau obtains its notices or "leads" concerning strikes and lock-outs from the public press, labor and trade papers and journals, and from the various city, State, and Federal Government agencies having to do with labor disputes. Detailed reports on each strike are solicited and received from representatives of the union and employer(s) involved. The term "strike" is used to cover all stoppages of work due to labor disputes whether these are called strikes or lock-outs.

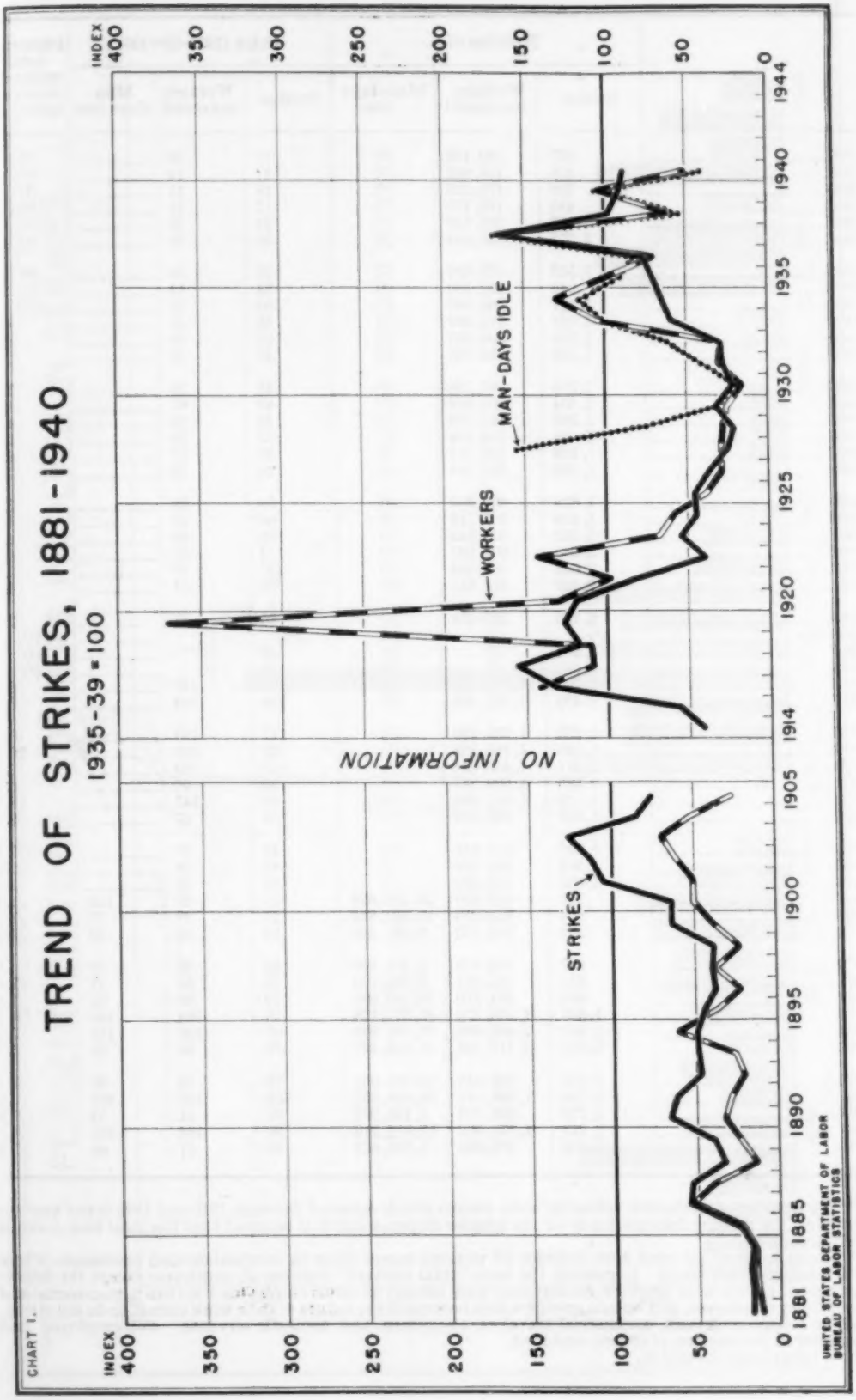


CHART 1.
TREND OF STRIKES, 1881-1940
1935-39 = 100
INDEX
400
350
300
250
200
150
100
50
0
1881
1885
1890
1895
1900
1905
1914
1920
1925
1930
1935
1940
1944
STRIKES
WORKERS
MAN-DAYS IDLE
NO INFORMATION
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in the United States, 1881 to 1940*

Year	Number of—			Index (1935-39=100)			Percent of total workers[2] involved in strikes
	Strikes	Workers involved[1]	Man-days idle	Strikes	Workers involved	Man-days idle	
1881	477	130,176	(3)	17	12	----------	(3)
1882	476	158,802	(3)	17	14	----------	(3)
1883	506	170,275	(3)	18	15	----------	(3)
1884	485	165,175	(3)	17	15	----------	(3)
1885	695	258,129	(3)	24	23	----------	(3)
1886	1,572	610,024	(3)	55	54	----------	(3)
1887	1,503	439,306	(3)	53	39	----------	(3)
1888	946	162,880	(3)	33	14	----------	(3)
1889	1,111	260,290	(3)	39	23	----------	(3)
1890	1,897	373,499	(3)	66	33	----------	4.2
1891	1,786	329,953	(3)	62	29	----------	3.6
1892	1,359	238,685	(3)	47	21	----------	2.5
1893	1,375	287,756	(3)	48	26	----------	3.2
1894	1,404	690,044	(3)	49	61	----------	8.3
1895	1,255	407,188	(3)	44	36	----------	4.4
1896	1,066	248,838	(3)	37	22	----------	2.8
1897	1,110	416,154	(3)	39	37	----------	4.3
1898	1,098	263,219	(3)	38	23	----------	2.6
1899	1,838	431,889	(3)	64	38	----------	3.9
1900	1,839	567,719	(3)	64	50	----------	4.9
1901	3,012	563,843	(3)	105	50	----------	4.6
1902	3,240	691,507	(3)	113	61	----------	5.4
1903	3,648	787,834	(3)	127	70	----------	5.9
1904	2,419	573,815	(3)	85	51	----------	4.3
1905	2,186	302,434	(3)	76	27	----------	2.1
1906–13	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	----------	(3)
1914	1,204	(3)	(3)	42	(3)	----------	(3)
1915	1,593	(3)	(3)	56	(3)	----------	(3)
1916[1]	3,789	1,599,917	(3)	132	142	----------	8.4
1917	4,450	1,227,254	(3)	155	109	----------	6.3
1918	3,353	1,239,989	(3)	117	110	----------	6.2
1919	3,630	4,160,348	(3)	127	370	----------	20.8
1920	3,411	1,463,054	(3)	119	130	----------	7.2
1921	2,385	1,099,247	(3)	83	98	----------	6.4
1922	1,112	1,612,562	(3)	39	143	----------	8.7
1923	1,553	756,584	(3)	54	67	----------	3.5
1924	1,249	654,641	(3)	44	58	----------	3.1
1925	1,301	428,416	(3)	45	38	----------	2.0
1926	1,035	329,592	(3)	36	29	----------	1.5
1927	707	329,939	26,218,628	25	29	155	1.4
1928	604	314,210	12,631,863	21	28	75	1.3
1929	921	288,572	5,351,540	32	26	32	1.2
1930	637	182,975	3,316,808	22	16	20	.8
1931	810	341,817	6,893,244	28	30	41	1.6
1932	841	324,210	10,502,033	29	29	62	1.8
1933	1,695	1,168,272	16,872,128	59	104	100	6.3
1934	1,856	1,466,695	19,591,949	65	130	116	7.2
1935	2,014	1,117,213	15,456,337	70	99	91	5.2
1936	2,172	788,648	13,901,956	76	70	82	3.1
1937	4,740	1,860,621	28,424,857	166	165	168	7.2
1938	2,772	688,376	9,148,273	97	61	54	2.8
1939	2,613	1,170,962	17,812,219	91	104	105	4.7
1940	2,508	576,988	6,700,872	88	51	40	2.3

[1] The number of workers involved in some strikes which occurred between 1916 and 1926 is not known. However, the missing information is for the smaller disputes and it is believed that the total here given is fairly accurate.

[2] "Total workers" as used here includes all workers except those in occupations and professions where strikes rarely if ever occur. In general, the term "total workers" includes all employees except the following groups: government workers, agricultural wage earners on farms employing less than 6, managerial and supervisory employees, and certain groups which because of the nature of their work cannot or do not strike, such as college professors, commercial travelers, clergymen, and domestic servants. Self-employed and unemployed persons are, of course, excluded.

[3] No information available.

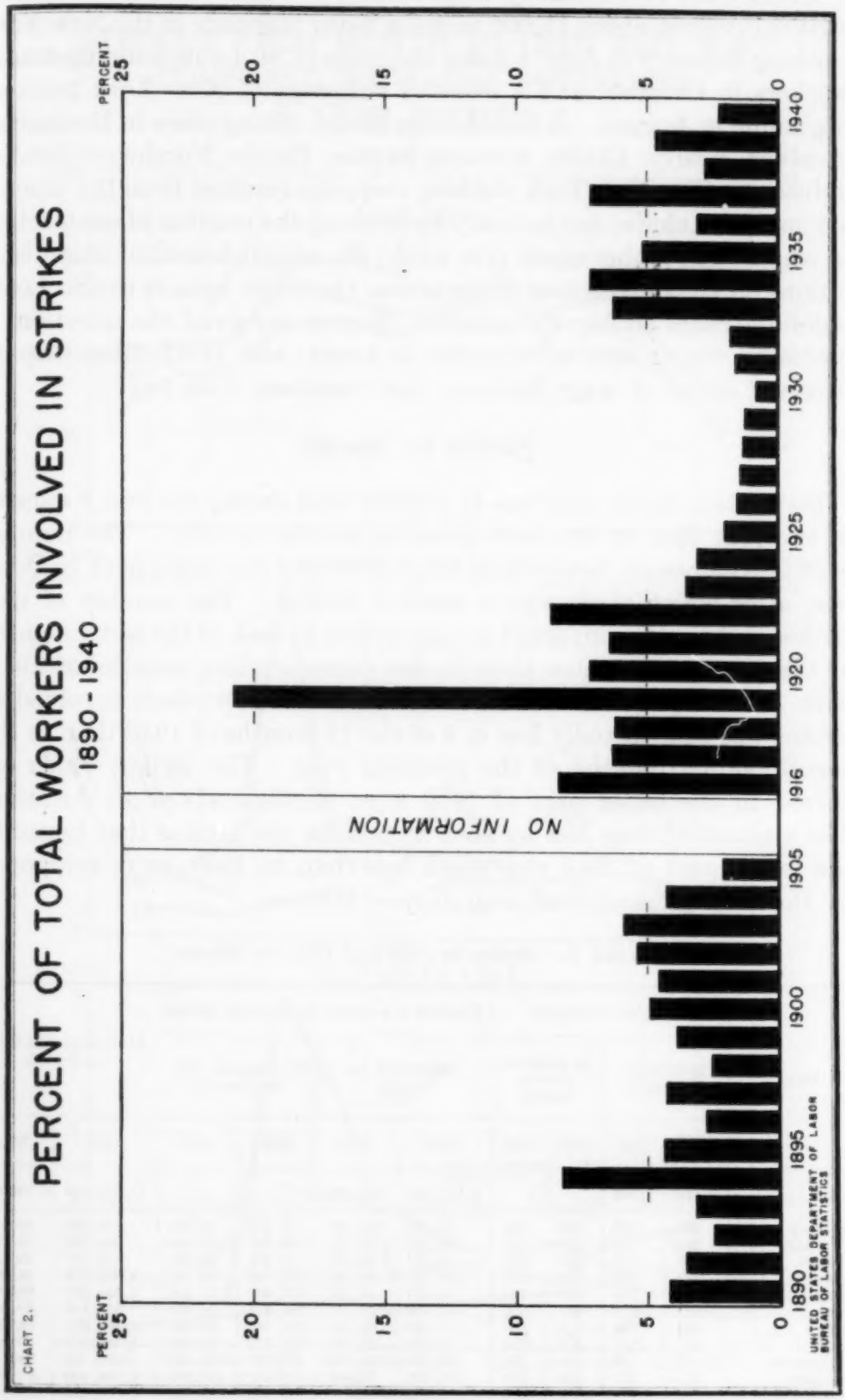


CHART 2.
PERCENT OF TOTAL WORKERS INVOLVED IN STRIKES
1890 - 1940
PERCENT
25
20
15
10
5
0
NO INFORMATION
1890
1895
1900
1905
1916
1920
1925
1930
1935
1940
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

There were no extremely large strikes in 1940. The three largest strikes involved about 15,000 each—a 2-day stoppage in the New York clothing industry in July, a 2-day stoppage of St. Louis building-trades workers in October, and a month's stoppage of New York painters beginning in August. A fourth large strike, taking place in December, involved nearly 12,000 workers in the Pacific Northwest lumber industry. The New York clothing stoppage resulted from the union's attempt to stabilize the industry by limiting the number of contractors to whom each jobber could give work; the establishment of union conditions on all construction projects was the major issue in the St. Louis building-trades strike; the painters' dispute involved the question of increased wages and a reduction in hours; and the lumber dispute involved issues of wage increases and vacations with pay.

Strikes by Months

Strike activity in 1940 was at a lower level during the first 8 months of the year than in the corresponding months of 1939. The number of strikes increased, however, in September and reached a peak in October, after which there was a marked decline. The number of new strikes and workers involved in new strikes in each of the last 4 months of the year was greater than in the corresponding months of 1939, with the exception of October. The number of workers involved in strikes was substantially less in 9 of the 12 months of 1940 than in the corresponding months of the previous year. The strikes which occurred in the latter part of 1940 were of relatively short duration. The amount of time lost by each worker in the strikes that began in the latter part of 1940 was much less than in 1939, as is evidenced by the smaller number of man-days of idleness.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in 1939 and 1940, by Months*

Month	Number of strikes				Number of workers involved in strikes				Man-days idle during month	
	Beginning in month		In progress during month		Beginning in month		In progress during month			
	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940
Year	2,613	2,508	.....	.....	1,170,962	576,988	.....	.....	17,812,219	6,700,872
January	203	128	323	222	51,159	26,937	72,427	41,284	513,460	246,674
February	204	172	343	270	68,252	29,509	88,267	38,050	553,138	289,992
March	210	178	349	295	43,337	22,433	64,660	43,231	618,147	386,981
April	281	228	431	336	396,166	39,481	425,748	53,119	4,902,238	441,866
May	258	239	434	361	95,239	53,231	457,407	77,124	3,547,868	665,688
June	245	214	407	336	62,534	38,542	127,474	56,403	958,127	484,007
July	251	244	389	390	175,542	63,126	211,548	82,970	1,168,382	585,651
August	275	231	448	394	79,670	61,356	118,772	90,226	1,101,419	706,308
September	197	253	373	394	36,846	65,362	103,538	108,389	892,485	780,570
October	205	267	356	419	106,628	71,997	139,608	107,863	1,508,120	915,014
November	178	207	317	373	43,239	62,399	130,341	101,532	1,664,574	739,807
December	106	147	222	277	12,350	42,615	37,122	61,576	384,261	458,314

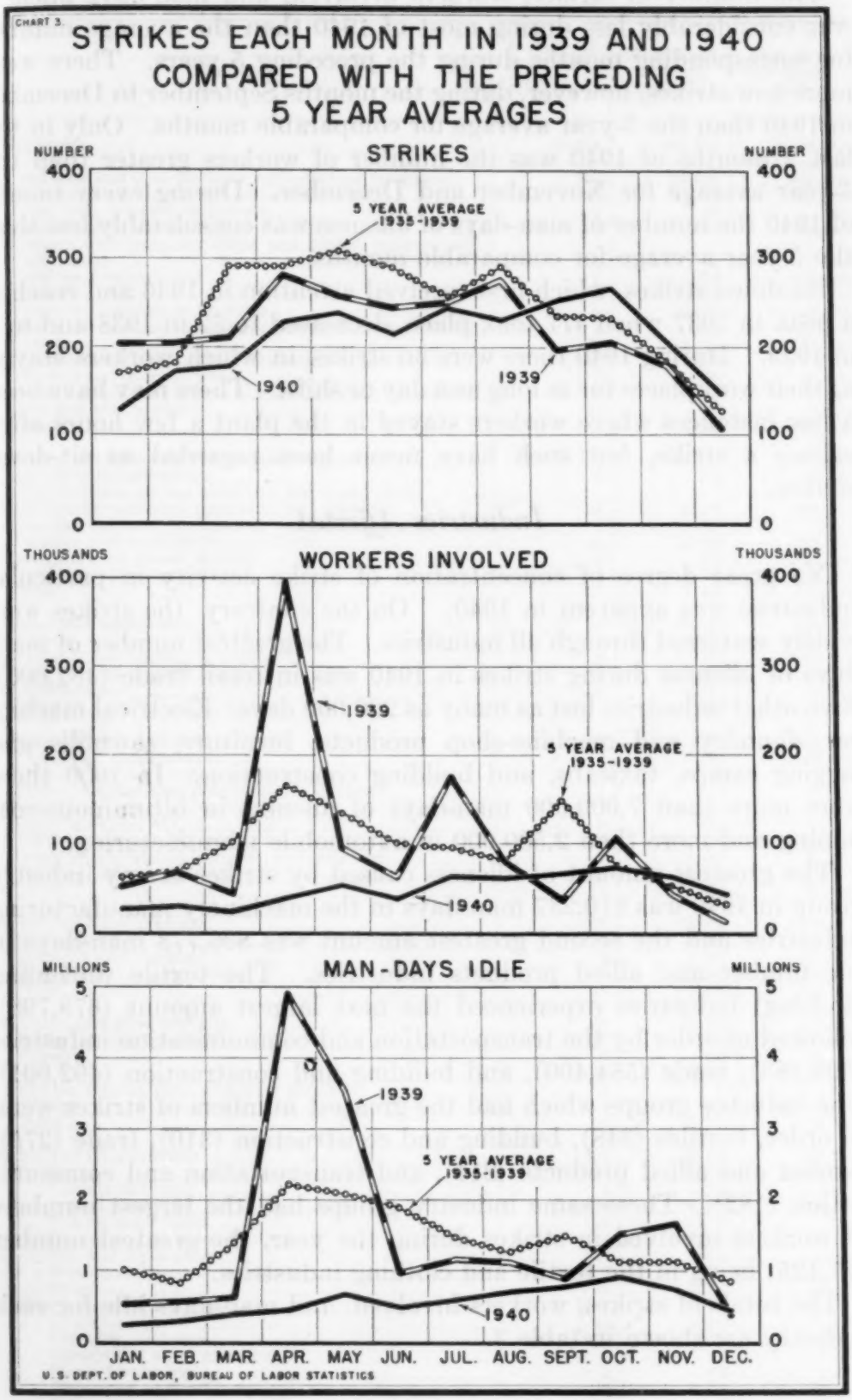


CHART 3.
STRIKES EACH MONTH IN 1939 AND 1940 COMPARED WITH THE PRECEDING 5 YEAR AVERAGES
STRIKES
NUMBER
400
300
200
100
0
5 YEAR AVERAGE 1935-1939
1940
1939
WORKERS INVOLVED
THOUSANDS
1939
5 YEAR AVERAGE 1935-1939
1940
MAN-DAYS IDLE
MILLIONS
5
4
3
2
1
0
1939
5 YEAR AVERAGE 1935-1939
1940
JAN. FEB. MAR. APR. MAY JUN. JUL. AUG. SEPT. OCT. NOV. DEC.
U. S. DEPT. OF LABOR, BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

The number of strikes, workers involved, and man-days idleness was considerably less during most of 1940 than the average number for corresponding months during the preceding 5 years. There were more new strikes, however, during the months September to December in 1940 than the 5-year average for comparable months. Only in the last 2 months of 1940 was the number of workers greater than the 5-year average for November and December. During every month of 1940 the number of man-days of idleness was considerably less than the 5-year average for comparable months.

Sit-down strikes, which first received attention in 1936 and reached a peak in 1937 when 477 took place, decreased to 52 in 1938 and to 6 in 1939. During 1940 there were no strikes in which workers stayed at their workplaces for as long as a day or shift. There may have been a few instances where workers stayed in the plant a few hours after calling a strike, but such have never been regarded as sit-down strikes.

Industries Affected

No great degree of concentration of strike activity in particular industries was apparent in 1940. On the contrary, the strikes were widely scattered through all industries. The greatest number of man-days of idleness during strikes in 1940 was in retail trade (482,000). Five other industries lost as many as 200,000 days: Electrical machinery, foundry and machine-shop products, furniture, sawmills and logging camps, taxicabs, and building construction. In 1939 there were more than 7,000,000 man-days of idleness in bituminous-coal mining and more than 2,500,000 in automobile manufacturing.

The greatest amount of idleness caused by strikes in any industry group in 1940 was 810,237 man-days in the machinery manufacturing industries and the second greatest amount was 806,773 man-days in the lumber and allied products industries. The textile (including clothing) industries experienced the next largest amount (678,798), followed in order by the transportation and communication industries (593,283), trade (584,400), and building and construction (492,901). The industry groups which had the greatest numbers of strikes were, in order, textiles (348), building and construction (310), trade (275), lumber and allied products (211), and transportation and communication (182). These same industry groups had the largest numbers of workers involved in strikes during the year, the greatest number (77,125) being in the textile and clothing industries.

The totals of strikes, workers involved, and man-days idle for each industry are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1940, by Industry*

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1940	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1940
All industries	**2,508**	**576,988**	**6,700,872**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**121**	**39,968**	**402,904**
Blast furnaces, steel works and rolling mills	25	20,580	134,769
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	2	39	249
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	7	1,069	39,002
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	2	80	864
Forgings, iron and steel	4	506	4,090
Hardware	5	425	6,879
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures	8	2,393	28,876
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	4	700	22,593
Stoves	17	3,770	32,249
Structural and ornamental metal work	12	2,052	17,142
Tin cans and other tinware	5	1,360	19,846
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	3	128	5,045
Wire and wire products	10	869	9,204
Other	17	5,997	82,102
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**130**	**35,617**	**810,237**
Agricultural implements	6	1,063	18,667
Cash registers, adding machines, and typewriters			[1] 36
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	34	8,906	393,572
Engines, turbines, tractors and water wheels	1	531	7,434
Foundry and machine-shop products	51	17,595	257,971
Machine tools (power driven)	6	677	11,736
Radios and phonographs	9	2,383	20,192
Other	23	4,462	100,629
Transportation equipment	**51**	**49,638**	**270,490**
Aircraft	3	6,270	36,402
Automobiles, bodies and parts	29	25,579	104,377
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	5	2,986	73,582
Shipbuilding	13	14,531	48,241
Other	1	272	7,888
Nonferrous metals and their products	**52**	**15,990**	**253,289**
Aluminum manufactures	4	9,064	30,866
Brass, bronze, and copper products	4	292	2,598
Clocks, watches, and time-recording devices	1	11	132
Jewelry	1	405	9,954
Lighting equipment	8	443	6,384
Silverware and plated ware	2	575	40,000
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	7	1,908	51,762
Stamped and enameled ware	14	2,176	50,807
Other	11	1,116	60,766
Lumber and allied products	**211**	**52,293**	**806,773**
Furniture	92	12,203	234,503
Millwork and planing	34	7,282	67,021
Sawmills and logging camps	50	28,206	364,909
Other	35	4,602	140,340
Stone, clay, and glass products	**65**	**12,604**	**205,919**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	20	3,175	71,962
Cement	6	972	26,182
Glass	11	5,804	55,206
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	3	75	866
Pottery	5	953	15,062
Other	20	1,625	36,641
Textiles and their products	**348**	**77,125**	**678,798**
Fabrics	91	26,150	272,726
Carpets and rugs	1	1,200	2,538
Cotton goods	30	12,791	134,542
Cotton small wares	1	18	250
Dyeing and finishing textiles	13	3,743	20,324
Silk and rayon goods	17	4,042	63,685
Woolen and worsted goods	10	2,206	10,546
Other	19	2,150	40,841
Wearing apparel	257	50,975	406,072
Clothing, men's	15	4,054	30,730
Clothing, women's	177	33,467	189,710
Corsets and allied garments	3	183	1,530
Men's furnishings	5	908	1,225
Hats, caps, and millinery	13	3,567	47,044
Shirts and collars	2	195	1,845
Hosiery	13	2,633	78,745
Knit goods	21	5,213	32,495
Other	8	755	22,748

[1] Man-days of idleness resulting from a strike which began in the preceding year.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1940, by Industry*—Continued

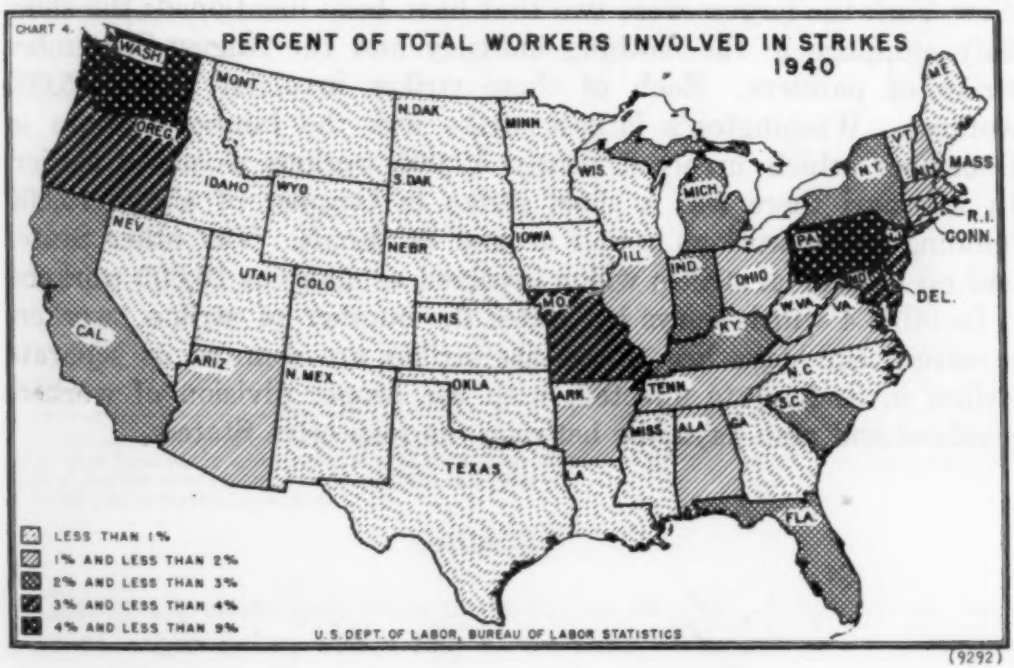
Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1940	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1940
Leather and its manufactures	**39**	**7,039**	**125,064**
Boots and shoes	18	4,287	43,860
Leather	5	432	15,359
Other leather goods	16	2,320	65,845
Food and kindred products	**152**	**18,901**	**154,682**
Baking	43	2,674	28,292
Beverages	11	549	6,765
Butter	1	94	564
Canning and preserving	32	6,636	44,723
Confectionery	9	1,896	13,400
Flour and grain mills	9	541	5,262
Slaughtering and meat packing	26	2,399	30,348
Other	21	2,172	25,328
Tobacco manufactures	**9**	**4,965**	**78,759**
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	1	9	18
Cigars	8	4,956	78,741
Paper and printing	**83**	**7,861**	**109,472**
Boxes, paper	26	2,796	43,320
Paper and pulp	6	1,395	18,224
Printing and publishing:			
Book and job	18	508	7,335
Newspapers and periodicals	9	1,575	13,444
Other	24	1,587	27,149
Chemicals and allied products	**36**	**14,434**	**191,683**
Chemicals	3	444	13,795
Cottonseed—oil, cake and meal	1	80	2,030
Druggists' preparations	3	139	1,042
Explosives	2	213	3,033
Fertilizers	2	104	401
Paints and varnishes	6	487	11,437
Petroleum refining	1	513	9,747
Rayon and allied products	1	8,500	85,000
Soap	1	125	500
Other	16	3,829	64,698
Rubber products	**18**	**8,526**	**97,228**
Rubber boots and shoes	1	345	690
Rubber tires and inner tubes	4	5,107	77,868
Other rubber goods	13	3,074	18,670
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**95**	**8,832**	**215,018**
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas	3	328	2,611
Broom and brush	2	415	7,259
Furriers and fur factories	14	565	30,973
Other	76	7,524	174,175
Extraction of minerals	**65**	**42,276**	**268,832**
Coal mining, anthracite	25	17,355	105,399
Coal mining, bituminous	34	24,372	153,296
Metalliferous mining	2	93	4,755
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	1	140	3,220
Other	3	316	2,162
Transportation and communication	**182**	**45,067**	**593,283**
Water transportation	51	10,985	181,773
Motortruck transportation	70	22,395	159,847
Motorbus transportation	20	1,708	11,079
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	26	7,931	225,242
Electric railroad	2	1,075	6,666
Steam railroad	1	71	568
Telephone and telegraph	6	813	7,404
Radio broadcasting and transmitting	6	89	704
Trade	**275**	**44,420**	**584,400**
Wholesale	91	8,537	102,159
Retail	184	35,883	482,241
Domestic and personal service	**180**	**8,926**	**109,744**
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	83	2,815	63,227
Personal service, barbers, and beauty parlors	5	738	3,562
Laundries	41	4,099	21,300
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	16	675	17,506
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	10	546	3,078
Other	5	53	1,071

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1940, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1940	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1940
Professional service	29	1,411	21,661
Recreation and amusement	24	1,230	17,250
Professional	3	140	1,436
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers	2	41	2,975
Building and construction	310	71,316	492,901
Buildings, exclusive of PWA	218	58,117	403,142
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings)	92	13,199	89,759
Agriculture and fishing	24	5,838	173,841
Agriculture	14	2,130	37,359
Fishing	10	3,708	136,482
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects	4	735	4,619
Other nonmanufacturing industries	49	5,206	51,295

States Affected

In 22 States less than 1 percent of all the workers exposed to strikes who were employed in the State were actually involved in strikes at any time during the year; in 13 States and the District of Columbia between 1 and 2 percent of the workers were involved; in 7 States between 2 and 3 percent; in 4 States slightly more than 3 percent; in Pennsylvania slightly more than 4 percent and in the State of Washington 8½ percent of the total workers were involved in strikes during 1940.



New York experienced the greatest number of strikes and the largest amount of idleness because of strikes in 1940. Pennsylvania had a few more workers involved in strikes than New York, but came second in number of strikes and number of man-days of idleness. Ten States during 1940 had 70 or more strikes. In these States also were the largest numbers of workers involved and the greatest amount of idleness because of strikes.

In general these are the leading industrial States with the largest number of workers. Five of the 10 States had a ratio of workers involved in strikes lower than the national average. The rank of the first 10 States with respect to the number of strikes, workers, and man-days was as follows:

	Strikes		*Workers involved*		*Man-days idle*
New York	553	Pennsylvania	105, 064	New York	1, 247, 401
Pennsylvania	301	New York	104, 446	Pennsylvania	904, 939
California	219	New Jersey	34, 415	Illinois	462, 227
New Jersey	179	Washington	33, 068	California	457, 559
Ohio	149	California	32, 735	Washington	393, 287
Illinois	133	Ohio	29, 752	New Jersey	381, 732
Massachusetts	104	Illinois	27, 548	Ohio	322, 922
Washington	77	Michigan	25, 773	Missouri	258, 904
Michigan	73	Missouri	23, 103	Massachusetts	256, 025
Missouri	70	Massachusetts	21, 911	Michigan	195, 297

About 76 percent of the total workers involved in strikes in the United States and 73 percent of the total man-days of idleness caused by strikes in 1940 were in the above 10 States. Among the strikes in New York the largest were two that have been mentioned: the short July stoppage in the clothing industry and the August-September strike of painters. Each of these strikes involved about 15,000 workers. Washington's largest strike was the lumber dispute in December which involved nearly 12,000 workers as noted earlier. In Missouri there was a short strike in October of about 15,000 building-trades workers in and around St. Louis. The other States had no individual strikes which involved as many as 10,000 workers.

In table 4 which shows by States the number of strikes, workers involved, and days lost, interstate strikes are counted as separate strikes in each State affected, with the proper division of workers involved and man-days idle between the respective States.

TABLE 4.—*Strikes in 1940, by States*

State	Number of strikes beginning in 1940	Workers involved			Man-days idle during 1940	
		Number	Percent of total	Average per strike	Number	Percent of total
All States	[1] 2,508	576,988	100.0	230	6,700,872	100.0
Alabama	34	5,289	.9	156	31,575	.5
Arizona	9	1,034	.2	115	12,807	.2
Arkansas	20	2,809	.5	140	82,627	1.2
California	219	32,735	5.7	149	457,559	6.8
Colorado	5	209	[2]	42	2,794	[2]
Connecticut	34	6,184	1.2	182	69,838	1.0
Delaware	8	1,049	.2	131	14,115	.2
District of Columbia	25	3,431	.6	137	19,021	.3
Florida	28	9,277	1.6	331	96,515	1.4
Georgia	14	1,753	.3	125	41,432	.6
Idaho	3	145	[2]	48	2,885	[2]
Illinois	133	27,548	4.8	207	462,227	6.9
Indiana	67	16,605	2.9	248	278,756	4.2
Iowa	25	960	.2	38	32,829	.5
Kansas	9	525	.1	58	8,977	.1
Kentucky	39	9,168	1.6	235	65,298	1.0
Louisiana	28	3,638	.6	130	51,299	.8
Maine	10	1,582	.3	158	5,417	.1
Maryland	29	14,791	2.6	510	140,677	2.1
Massachusetts	104	21,911	3.8	211	256,025	3.8
Michigan	73	25,773	4.5	353	195,297	2.9
Minnesota	25	3,223	.6	129	99,228	1.5
Mississippi	6	1,198	.2	200	8,361	.1
Missouri	70	23,103	4.0	330	258,904	3.9
Montana	4	405	.1	101	7,905	.1
Nebraska	5	286	[2]	57	1,616	[2]
Nevada	3	52	[2]	17	1,056	[2]
New Hamsphire	5	1,144	.2	229	6,696	.1
New Jersey	179	34,415	5.9	192	381,732	5.7
New Mexico	3	223	[2]	74	6,041	.1
New York	553	104,446	18.0	189	1,247,401	18.8
North Carolina	23	4,921	.9	214	93,164	1.4
North Dakota	7	93	[2]	13	1,137	[2]
Ohio	149	29,752	5.2	200	322,922	4.8
Oklahoma	13	330	.1	25	7,946	.1
Oregon	41	7,062	1.2	172	116,899	1.7
Pennsylvania	301	105,064	18.1	349	904,939	13.7
Rhode Island	14	2,943	.5	210	19,179	.3
South Carolina	16	8,577	1.5	536	76,222	1.1
South Dakota	4	51	[2]	13	241	[2]
Tennessee	25	7,557	1.3	302	40,586	.6
Texas	40	5,804	1.0	145	87,051	1.3
Utah	7	200	[2]	29	1,592	[2]
Vermont	3	269	[2]	90	2,921	[2]
Virginia	29	7,226	1.3	249	143,866	2.1
Washington	77	33,068	5.7	429	393,287	5.9
West Virginia	28	3,810	.7	136	42,825	.6
Wisconsin	49	5,325	.9	109	99,036	1.5
Wyoming	1	25	[2]	25	150	[2]

[1] The sum of this column is more than 2,508. This is due to the fact that 55 strikes which extended across State lines have been counted, in this table, as separate strikes in each State affected, with the proper allocation of number of workers involved and man-days idle.

[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Cities Affected

Thirty-six cities had 10 or more strikes in 1940. Figures for these and 41 other cities, which had 10 or more strikes in some preceding year, appear in table 5.

The number of strikes in New York City (445) was exactly equal to the combined number of strikes in the next 10 highest cities; the

number of workers involved in the New York City strikes was 85 percent as great as the total for the next 10 cities and the amount of idleness was 90 percent as great. Philadelphia was second to New York in number of strikes (70), but St. Louis was second in number of workers involved (20,454) and man-days idle (214,386). The building-trades strike in October accounted for a large portion of the comparatively high figures for St. Louis.

Fifteen cities had 25 or more strikes during 1940. These cities, ranked in order of the number of strikes experienced, number of workers involved, and number of man-days idle, were as follows:

	Strikes
New York City	445
Philadelphia	70
Cleveland	56
Los Angeles	56
Chicago	45
St. Louis	43
Newark	39
Detroit	38
Seattle	34
Oakland (East Bay area) [1]	33
Pittsburgh	31
San Francisco [1]	31
Jersey City	26
Boston	25
Washington, D. C.	25

	Workers involved
New York City	87,373
St. Louis	20,454
Philadelphia	15,114
Detroit	14,794
Chicago	13,063
Cleveland	7,778
Boston	7,665
Seattle	7,557
Los Angeles	6,779
Pittsburgh	6,235
Oakland (East Bay area) [1]	5,984
Newark	4,713
Jersey City	3,507
Washington, D. C.	3,431
San Francisco [1]	1,967

	Man-days idle
New York City	1,073,597
St. Louis	214,386
Philadelphia	209,623
Chicago	142,967
Boston	111,023
Cleveland	107,659
Los Angeles	100,522
Detroit	94,090
Pittsburgh	86,336
Seattle	85,568
Oakland (East Bay area) [1]	79,163
Newark	73,640
San Francisco [1]	44,570
Jersey City	26,064
Washington, D. C.	19,021

[1] See footnote to table 5.

In 1939 Detroit had more idleness because of strikes than any other city; in 1940 it was eighth on the list. In 1939 Milwaukee and Boston were among the 6 cities with the most strikes. In 1940 Boston was fourteenth as regards the number of strikes, seventh as regards the number of workers involved, and fifth as regards the amount of idleness. Milwaukee was not among the 15 cities most affected by strikes.

In table 5, strikes extending into two or more cities were counted as separate strikes in each city and the workers involved and man-days of idleness for such strikes were allocated to the various cities affected. Certain strikes are, therefore, included in the figures for a

given city although they may have been only parts of larger intercity strikes.

TABLE 5.—*Strikes in 1940 in Cities Which Had 10 or More Strikes in Any Year from 1927 to 1940*

City	Number of strikes beginning in 1940	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1940	City	Number of strikes beginning in 1940	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1940
Akron, Ohio	5	1,965	70,186	New Haven, Conn	10	579	5,874
Allentown, Pa	4	499	9,387	New Orleans, La	17	2,304	30,864
Atlanta, Ga	8	657	23,992	New York (Greater)	445	87,373	1,073,597
Baltimore, Md	21	2,670	32,035	Norfolk, Va	4	89	429
Birmingham, Ala	13	1,177	5,006	Oakland, Calif. (East Bay area) [1]	33	5,984	79,163
Boston, Mass	25	7,665	111,023	Passaic, N. J	10	713	3,593
Buffalo, N. Y	14	767	7,604	Paterson, N. J	20	1,257	9,804
Chattanooga, Tenn	8	4,083	20,625	Pawtucket, R. I	1	200	600
Chicago, Ill	45	13,063	142,967	Peoria, Ill	5	1,231	6,923
Cincinnati, Ohio	10	538	7,831	Philadelphia, Pa	70	15,114	209,623
Cleveland, Ohio	56	7,778	107,659	Pittsburgh, Pa	31	6,235	86,336
Columbus, Ohio	3	784	5,745	Portland, Oreg	19	3,186	60,044
Denver, Colo	3	80	2,200	Providence, R. I	8	985	11,814
Des Moines, Iowa	4	191	1,478	Reading, Pa	9	1,071	9,308
Detroit, Mich	38	14,794	94,090	Richmond, Va	9	3,112	67,858
Duluth, Minn	3	565	14,539	Rochester, N. Y	10	1,257	13,770
Easton, Pa	5	675	8,484	Rockford, Ill	4	1,338	3,084
East St. Louis, Ill	10	1,834	47,541	Saginaw, Mich	6	645	10,934
Elizabeth, N. J	11	1,180	15,302	St. Louis, Mo	43	20,454	214,386
Erie, Pa	5	821	18,685	St. Paul, Minn	6	1,298	41,541
Evansville, Ind	3	1,365	20,955	San Francisco, Calif. [1]	31	1,967	44,570
Fall River, Mass	11	1,589	19,315	Scranton, Pa	8	1,294	36,925
Flint, Mich	5	6,819	14,207	Seattle, Wash	34	7,557	85,568
Fort Smith, Ark	10	963	14,270	Shamokin, Pa	1	35	1,410
Haverhill, Mass	3	122	1,510	South Bend, Ind	4	336	1,632
Houston, Texas	10	1,427	40,383	Springfield, Ill	7	1,295	2,353
Indianapolis, Ind	12	2,776	61,562	Springfield, Mass	5	438	3,106
Jersey City, N. J	26	3,507	26,064	Tacoma, Wash	12	8,422	92,406
Kansas City, Mo	9	593	8,584	Terre Haute, Ind	3	67	634
Lancaster, Pa	4	489	10,338	Toledo, Ohio	12	3,242	21,178
Los Angeles, Calif	56	6,779	100,522	Trenton, N. J	6	1,982	28,431
Louisville, Ky	21	2,239	37,332	Washington, D. C	25	3,431	19,021
Lowell, Mass	8	1,190	10,583	Waterbury, Conn	1	21	126
Lynn, Mass	6	303	3,043	Wausau, Wis	2	938	21,602
Memphis, Tenn	8	2,620	12,310	Wilkes-Barre, Pa	3	131	1,360
Milwaukee, Wis	17	1,135	15,268	Woonsocket, R. I	2	246	1,914
Minneapolis, Minn	12	989	30,439	Worcester, Mass	3	61	164
Newark, N. J	39	4,713	73,640	York, Pa	5	788	10,205
New Bedford, Mass	5	805	23,666				

[1] For the first time in the Bureau's reports, strike figures are shown separately for San Francisco and the Oakland-East Bay areas. In preceding years combined figures for these areas have been given under the heading "San Francisco (bay area)."

Workers Involved

The average number of workers involved in the 2,508 strikes which began in 1940 was 230 per strike. Half of the strikes involved fewer than 50 workers. Approximately one-fourth of the strikes involved fewer than 20 workers each and two-thirds of the total involved fewer than 100 workers each. About one-fourth of the strikes ranged in size from 100 up to 500 workers each and only about 9 percent of the total strikes involved 500 or more workers each. Among the latter were four strikes, previously mentioned, in each of which more than 10,000 workers were involved—2-day stoppages in the New York

of an industry that was located within a particular area, for example, the New York painters' strike and the clothing stoppage mentioned previously, and a general trucking strike which occurred in New York in October.

TABLE 7.—*Strikes Ending in 1940, by Number of Establishments Involved*

Number of establishments involved	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	2,493	100.0	573,364	100.0	6,679,745	100.0
1 establishment	1,890	75.8	290,828	50.7	3,315,755	49.7
2 to 5 establishments	386	15.5	93,292	16.3	1,501,287	22.5
6 to 10 establishments	83	3.3	29,457	5.1	383,698	5.7
11 establishments and over	134	5.4	159,787	27.9	1,479,005	22.1

Duration of Strikes

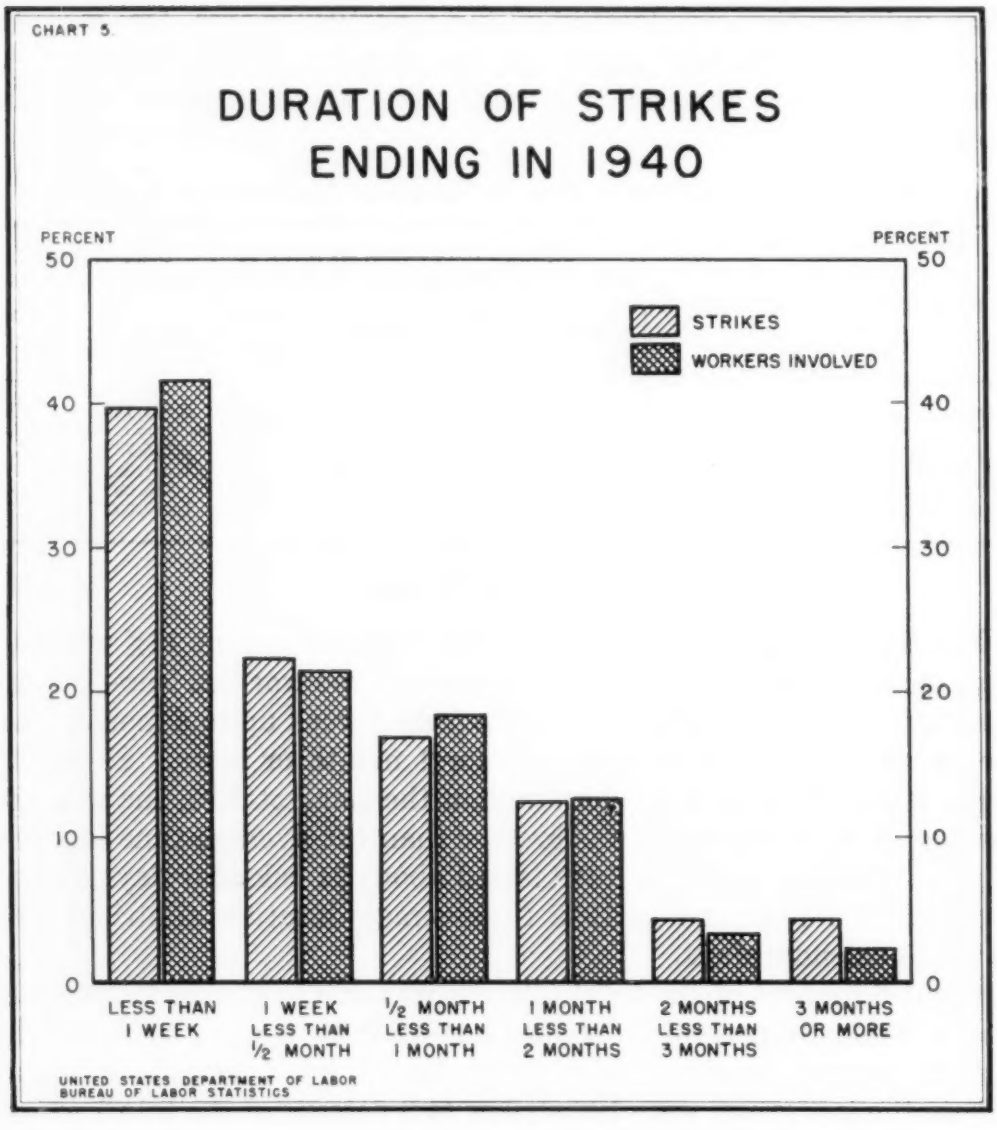
The workers involved in 1940 strikes were idle about 11½ working days on the average. Nearly 42 percent of the workers were idle for less than 1 week, 40 percent were idle from a week up to a month, and the remaining 18 percent were idle for 1 month or more. Since the larger strikes tended to be shorter than the small strikes, the average number of days per strike was greater than the average time lost per worker. Strikes ending in 1940 lasted about 21 calendar days on the average.[4] In 1939 and in 1938 the average duration of strikes was about 23 calendar days.

About 8 percent of the total idleness was due to strikes lasting less than a week, 34 percent to strikes lasting from a week to a month, and 58 percent to the strikes which lasted for a month or more. Within the last group were 106 strikes (4.3 percent of the total) which lasted 3 months or more. These strikes included only 2.4 percent of the total workers involved, but accounted for more than 17 percent of the total idleness. Data on duration of strikes are presented in table 8, and graphically in chart 5.

TABLE 8.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in 1940*

Duration of strikes	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	2,493	100.0	573,364	100.0	6,679,745	100.0
Less than 1 week	989	39.7	238,766	41.6	551,347	8.3
1 week and less than ½ month	556	22.3	123,142	21.5	820,730	12.3
½ and less than 1 month	422	16.9	105,888	18.5	1,462,876	21.9
1 and less than 2 months	312	12.5	72,848	12.7	1,845,410	27.6
2 and less than 3 months	108	4.3	19,073	3.3	850,469	12.7
3 months or more	106	4.3	13,647	2.4	1,148,913	17.2

[4] This is a simple average based on the duration of each strike without reference to the number of workers involved or the number of man-days of idleness resulting.



Sex of Workers

Approximately 86 percent of the workers involved in 1940 strikes were men and a little less than 14 percent were women. It is estimated that of the total workers in industries and occupations where strikes occur, about 81 percent are men and 19 percent are women. On the basis of this estimate, about 2.4 percent of the total male workers were involved in strikes during 1940 as compared with 1.6 percent of the total female workers. Men were involved exclusively in 61.3 percent of the strikes ending in the year, and in 1.8 percent of the strikes women were involved exclusively. In 36.5 percent both men and women were involved. The sex of workers in 9 strikes (0.4 percent of the total) was not reported.

Labor Organizations Involved

In table 9 the affiliations of the unions involved in 1940 strikes are indicated. In the majority of cases the unions regarded as involved in the strikes were the initiators and provided the leadership and guidance for the workers throughout the disputes and the settlement negotiations. Sometimes, however, strikes occurred among unorganized workers who later received leadership and assistance from union officials in negotiating settlements, with the result in some cases that the workers joined the unions and obtained union agreements to embody the terms of settlement. In such cases the union giving such assistance was regarded as involved in the strike.

Unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor were involved in 62 percent of the strikes ending in 1940, which included 53½ percent of the total workers involved and 54½ percent of the total man-days of idleness. Nearly 20 percent of the A. F. of L. strikes were among the building trades, 14 percent were in retail and wholesale trade, 10 percent were in the textile and clothing industries, (four-fifths of which were in the ladies' garment industry subsequent to the union's reaffiliation with the A. F. of L. in June), 8 percent were in the domestic and personal service industries (mostly hotels, restaurants, and laundries), 8 percent were in the food industries, and 4½ percent were in the motortruck transportation industry.

Affiliates of the Congress of Industrial Organizations were involved in 28 percent of the total strikes. C. I. O. strikes were larger on the average than A. F. of L. strikes and included almost 40 percent of the total workers and man-days of idleness. The largest C. I. O. strikes during the year were in automobile manufacturing and in the steel, rayon, aluminum, shipbuilding, and aircraft industries.

Unions affiliated with neither the A. F. of L. nor the C. I. O. were involved in 5½ percent of the strikes. The International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union before reaffiliation with the A. F. of L. accounted for a large proportion of these. Among other unaffiliated unions involved were the Mechanics Educational Society of America, involved in 6 strikes. In 3 percent of the strikes two rival unions were involved, most of these were A. F. of L. and C. I. O. unions, but in a few cases there were disputes between either an A. F. of L. or C. I. O. union and unaffiliated organizations. These rival union disputes included less than 3 percent of the total workers involved and accounted for only 2 percent of the total idleness. Unions confined to one company engaged in only 3 small strikes. In 45 small strikes no union was involved.

TABLE 9.—*Strikes Ending in 1940, by Affiliations of Labor Organizations Involved*

Labor organization involved	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	2,493	100.0	573,364	100.0	6,679,745	100.0
American Federation of Labor	1,541	61.9	306,541	53.5	3,631,899	54.5
Congress of Industrial Organizations	689	27.6	222,858	38.9	2,668,149	39.9
Unaffiliated unions	138	5.5	21,972	3.8	212,435	3.2
Railroad brotherhoods	3	.1	360	.1	2,758	(1)
2 rival unions	74	3.0	15,013	2.6	134,681	2.0
Company unions	3	.1	174	(1)	956	(1)
No organization	45	1.8	6,446	1.1	28,867	.4

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Causes of Strikes

Half of the strikes ending in 1940, including a third of the total workers involved and accounting for 41 percent of the total man-days of idleness, were primarily over the issues of union recognition, closed or union shop, discrimination, or other union-organization matters. In two-fifths of these strikes (one-fifth of the total number) demands for increased wages or decreased hours or protests against wage decreases were also in dispute, but these matters were secondary to the issue of union recognition.

Wage or hour issues were the primary cause of about 30 percent of the strikes, which included 41 percent of the total workers involved and accounted for 46 percent of the total idleness. The remaining strikes (20 percent), which included 26 percent of the total workers and accounted for 13 percent of the total idleness, were due to such issues as grievances over physical working conditions, supervision, job assignments, work loads, pay methods, and a multitude of items other than wages and hours or union-organization matters.

The difficulty in classifying strikes according to causes is apparent to anyone familiar with the complexities of employer-employee relationships. Although a single grievance or demand is the cause of a few strikes, in most disputes which result in stoppages of work there are numerous diversified grievances or demands. The Bureau obtains the facts, so far as possible, from all the parties directly involved, as well as from any outside impartial persons who have knowledge of the situation, such as those who assist in negotiating settlements by conciliation or arbitration methods. Each complex situation, where many grievances or demands may be involved, must necessarily be classified according to what are judged to be the most important or "major" issues.

TABLE 10.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Ending in 1940*

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	2,493	100.0	573,364	100.0	6,679,745	100.0
Wages and hours	753	30.2	234,832	41.0	3,092,929	46.3
Wage increase	560	22.5	162,464	28.3	2,083,912	31.3
Wage decrease	78	3.1	18,206	3.2	176,757	2.6
Wage increase, hour decrease	85	3.4	39,349	6.9	696,243	10.4
Wage decrease, hour increase	6	.2	9,622	1.7	93,668	1.4
Hour increase	5	.2	210	(1)	425	(1)
Hour decrease	19	.8	4,981	.9	41,924	.6
Union organization	1,243	49.9	190,067	33.1	2,727,448	40.8
Recognition	260	10.4	19,922	3.5	367,548	5.5
Recognition and wages	283	11.4	38,416	6.7	775,983	11.6
Recognition and hours	10	.4	238	(1)	9,416	.1
Recognition, wages, and hours	214	8.6	12,478	2.2	213,764	3.2
Discrimination	123	4.9	27,821	4.9	292,462	4.4
Strengthening bargaining position	37	1.5	21,762	3.8	193,570	2.9
Closed or union shop	289	11.6	63,847	11.0	831,534	12.5
Other	27	1.1	5,583	1.0	43,171	.6
Miscellaneous	497	19.9	148,465	25.9	859,368	12.9
Sympathy	29	1.2	5,362	.9	41,406	.6
Rival unions or factions	81	3.2	18,554	3.2	149,792	2.2
Jurisdiction [2]	77	3.1	8,087	1.4	59,016	.9
Other	272	10.9	114,364	20.0	591,905	8.9
Not reported [3]	38	1.5	2,098	.4	17,249	.3

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.
[2] It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Owing to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.
[3] Most of the strikes in this group were against women's clothing manufacturers—many of them in New York City. The union involved regarded them as strikes for the enforcement of the union agreements but the specific issue involved in each case was not reported.

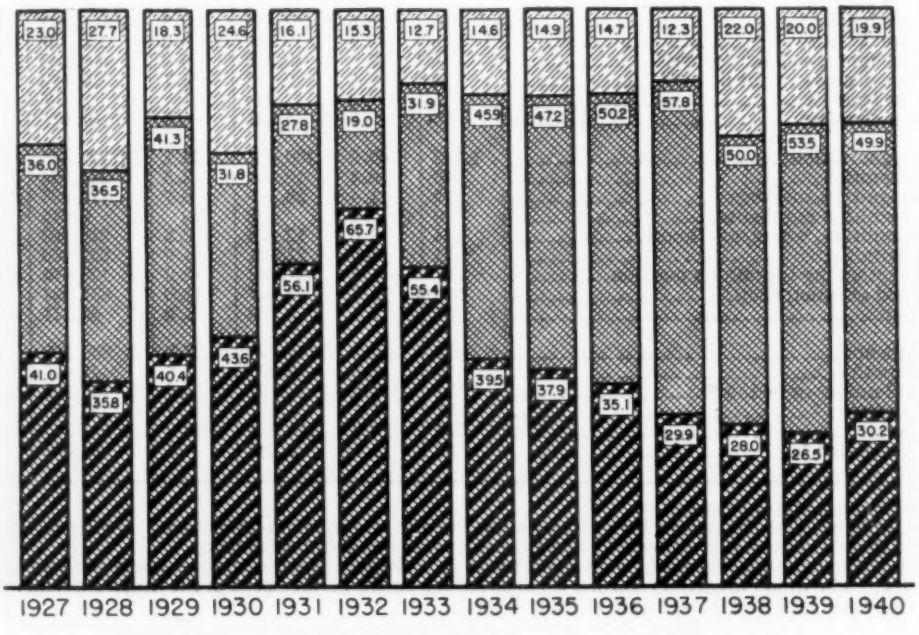
Disputes classified under "wages and hours" are mostly cases in which an increase or decrease in basic wage rates or hours of work appeared to be the most important issue. This group also includes some disputes primarily about overtime rates and hours for which overtime should be paid.

Of the disputes classified under "union organization" issues, the "recognition" strikes (with or without the addition of wage or hour issues) were mostly disputes with nonunion firms where newly organized workers were demanding recognition for the first time. Not all of the recognition strikes were directed against unorganized firms however. Some were situations where a union agreement had expired and the union felt that the firm did not negotiate "in good faith" for a new agreement; that is, gave evidence that it sought or hoped to revert to a nonunion basis. Such cases are distinct from situations in which the management and unions are unable to reach an agreement over specific terms; these are classified under the particular issue in disagreement as, for example, wages or hours. "Discrimination" strikes usually result from incidents of hiring or the discharging of union members, but the issue of discrimination is sometimes encountered in connection with promotion or job assignment.

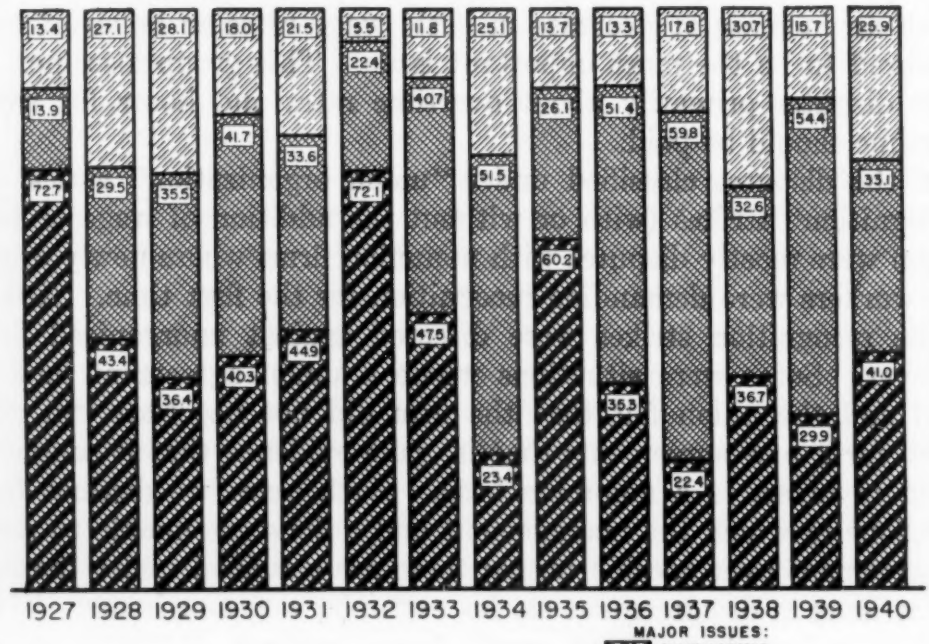
CHART 6.

MAJOR ISSUES INVOLVED IN STRIKES
1927-1940

PERCENT OF STRIKES



PERCENT OF WORKERS INVOLVED IN STRIKES



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

"Strengthening bargaining position" refers to disputes in which a union endeavors to extend the scope of its representation and bargaining, usually by attempting to represent a greater proportion of the workers or to extend the subject matter about which it can bargain for its members. In most of these cases formal recognition has been granted previously. In some of the disputes classified under "closed or union shop" the union demanded the check-off as a means of obtaining or stabilizing the closed-shop condition.

The disputes classified as "other" under the union-organization strikes centered in some union organization difficulty which did not fall under the preceding headings. An example of such disputes was one under a closed-shop agreement, where there was an issue as to whether a firm must select its new employees from the union's list of eligibles. Another case coming under this classification was one in which the union charged the firm with failing or refusing to take up and settle grievances under the procedure provided for in their agreement.

Results of Strikes

The Bureau classifies the results of strikes to show whether the workers won substantially all they demanded, gained a part of what they sought, or were largely unsuccessful either in gaining their demands or in defeating changes demanded by the employer which they did not want. A strike that is "substantially won," or the so-called successful strike, does not in all cases result in an advance or improvement in working conditions; it may mean merely that the workers have been successful in warding off an attempted worsening of their condition, as in a case where they maintained their former wages by defeating a proposal for a wage decrease.

The results of strikes must necessarily be based on the terms of settlement in relation to the issues which caused the strikes as revealed at their termination. The apparent results at the close of a strike, however, may not indicate the final outcome. A strike apparently won may be only a temporary victory for the workers if the firm later goes out of business or decides to move to another locality. Likewise a strike apparently lost may serve to convince an employer that he must improve conditions for his workers in order to avoid future stoppages and interruptions to production. Nevertheless, a statistical classification must for practical reasons be based on the apparent results at the termination of the strikes.

About 27 percent of all the workers involved in the strikes ending in 1940 won substantially all of their demands; 56 percent obtained compromise settlements or partial gains; and 9 percent gained little

or nothing. Of the 2,493 strikes ending in 1940 the workers substantially won 42 percent, compromised 32 percent, and gained little or nothing as a result of 17 percent. Twenty-four percent of the total idleness resulted from the strikes which were substantially won, 58 percent resulted from those which were compromised, and 13 percent resulted from those which brought little or no gains to the workers. The results of 2½ percent of the strikes were indeterminate or not reported. Another 6 percent of them were jurisdiction, rival union, or factional disputes, the results of which could not be classified as won, lost, or compromised because a gain to one group necessarily constituted a loss to other workers who were involved in the strike.

TABLE 11.—*Results of Strikes Ending in 1940*

Result	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	2,493	100.0	573,364	100.0	6,679,745	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	1,047	42.0	157,307	27.4	1,602,182	24.0
Partial gains or compromises	794	31.8	321,761	56.3	3,855,884	57.7
Little or no gains to workers	433	17.4	53,497	9.3	871,755	13.1
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	158	6.3	26,641	4.6	208,808	3.1
Indeterminate	27	1.1	12,226	2.1	133,593	2.0
Not reported	34	1.4	1,932	.3	7,523	.1

Table 12 indicates that 70 percent of the workers involved in wage and hour strikes obtained compromise settlements, 25 percent substantially won their demands, and about 4 percent gained little or nothing. In the union organization strikes 47 percent of the workers obtained compromise settlements, 32 percent substantially won their demands, while 18½ percent of the workers in these strikes gained little or nothing. Since a greater proportion of the larger strikes were terminated by compromise settlements than the smaller ones, the proportion of strikes won, compromised, or lost varies greatly from the proportion of workers affected by the various settlements. Of the 753 wage and hour strikes 44 percent were substantially won, 43 percent were compromised, and 13 percent brought little or no gains to the workers. Of the 1,243 union organization strikes 48 percent were substantially won, 28 percent were compromised, and 23 percent gained little or nothing for the workers.

The rival union and jurisdictional disputes cannot, of course, be classified as to their degree of success for all the workers involved. Sympathy strikes are judged in accordance with their effect on the

disputes for which the sympathy strikes are called, but in most instances this information is not obtainable.

TABLE 12.—*Results of Strikes Ending in 1940, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issue	Total		Strikes resulting in—					
	Number	Percent	Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Strikes		Percent of strikes					
All issues	2,493	100.0	42.0	31.8	17.4	6.3	1.1	1.4
Wages and hours	753	100.0	44.1	42.9	12.7	.....	.3	.....
Wage increase	560	100.0	42.5	45.3	11.8	.....	.4	.....
Wage decrease	78	100.0	48.8	33.3	17.9	.....	.....	.....
Wage increase, hour decrease	85	100.0	44.7	40.0	15.3	.....	.....	.....
Wage decrease, hour increase	6	100.0	83.3	.....	16.7	.....	.....	.....
Hour increase	5	100.0	60.0	.....	40.0	.....	.....	.....
Hour decrease	19	100.0	52.6	47.4	.....	.....	.....	.....
Union organization	1,243	100.0	48.1	28.2	23.0	.....	.7	.....
Recognition	260	100.0	42.4	18.8	38.8	.....	.....	.....
Recognition and wages	283	100.0	50.1	33.6	16.3	.....	.....	.....
Recognition and hours	10	100.0	20.0	50.0	30.0	.....	.....	.....
Recognition, wages, and hours	214	100.0	61.7	19.6	18.7	.....	.....	.....
Strengthening bargaining position	37	100.0	21.6	51.4	10.8	.....	16.2	.....
Closed or union shop	289	100.0	44.7	35.6	19.7	.....	.....	.....
Discrimination	123	100.0	51.3	20.3	26.8	.....	1.6	.....
Other	27	100.0	44.5	44.4	7.4	.....	3.7	.....
Miscellaneous	497	100.0	23.5	24.3	10.3	31.9	3.2	6.8
Sympathy	29	100.0	17.2	24.1	13.8	.....	44.9	.....
Rival unions or factions	81	100.0	.....	.....	.....	100.0	.....	.....
Jurisdiction	77	100.0	.....	.....	.....	100.0	.....	.....
Other	272	100.0	41.2	41.9	16.2	.....	.7	.....
Not reported	38	100.0	.....	.....	7.9	.....	2.6	89.5
	Workers		Percent of workers involved					
All issues	573,364	100.0	27.4	56.3	9.3	4.6	2.1	0.3
Wages and hours	234,832	100.0	24.9	70.0	3.8	.....	1.3	.....
Wage increase	162,464	100.0	23.8	69.8	4.5	.....	1.9	.....
Wage decrease	18,206	100.0	21.9	73.0	5.1	.....	.....	.....
Wage increase, hour decrease	39,349	100.0	14.0	84.7	1.3	.....	.....	.....
Wage decrease, hour increase	9,622	100.0	99.9	.....	.1	.....	.....	.....
Hour increase	210	100.0	78.1	.....	21.9	.....	.....	.....
Hour decrease	4,981	100.0	11.6	88.4	.....	.....	.....	.....
Union organization	190,067	100.0	32.3	46.9	18.5	.....	2.3	.....
Recognition	19,922	100.0	47.5	21.9	30.6	.....	.....	.....
Recognition and wages	38,416	100.0	37.4	45.6	17.0	.....	.....	.....
Recognition and hours	238	100.0	20.6	47.0	32.4	.....	.....	.....
Recognition, wages, and hours	12,478	100.0	66.3	24.2	9.5	.....	.....	.....
Strengthening bargaining position	21,762	100.0	7.0	63.4	9.8	.....	19.8	.....
Closed or union shop	63,847	100.0	22.7	64.9	12.4	.....	.....	.....
Discrimination	27,821	100.0	34.0	25.9	39.9	.....	.2	.....
Other	5,583	100.0	67.8	31.5	.3	.....	.4	.....
Miscellaneous	148,465	100.0	25.1	46.0	6.5	17.9	3.2	1.3
Sympathy	5,362	100.0	3.3	12.1	1.5	.....	83.1	.....
Rival unions or factions	18,554	100.0	.....	.....	.....	100.0	.....	.....
Jurisdiction	8,087	100.0	.....	.....	.....	100.0	.....	.....
Other	114,364	100.0	32.5	59.1	8.2	.....	.2	.....
Not reported	2,098	100.0	.....	.....	5.5	.....	2.4	92.1

As indicated in table 13, a large proportion of the short strikes were successful, whereas those which continued for some time were more likely to be compromised or lost. More than 46 percent of the 1- and 2-week strikes were successful, whereas only about 25 percent of the strikes lasting over 2 months resulted in the workers gaining substantially all of their demands. Only 15 percent of the strikes lasting less than 1 week were lost in contrast to 30 percent of those lasting 3 months or more.

The proportion of compromise settlements did not vary in direct relation to the length of the strikes. Although the short strikes had the smallest proportion (27 percent) of compromise settlements, almost 40 percent of the 2- to 4-week strikes were compromised in contrast to 31 percent of the 1- to 2-week strikes. Likewise, 48 percent of the 2- to 3-month strikes were compromised, while only 35 percent of the strikes lasting over 3 months resulted in compromise settlements.

TABLE 13.—*Results of Strikes Ending in 1940 in Relation to Their Duration*

Duration of strikes	Number of strikes resulting in—					Percent of strikes resulting in—				
	Total	Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other[1]	Total	Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other[1]
Total	2,493	1,047	794	433	219	100.0	42.0	31.8	17.4	8.8
Less than 1 week	989	473	264	149	103	100.0	47.8	26.7	15.1	10.4
1 week and less than ½ month	556	250	170	92	44	100.0	45.0	30.6	16.5	7.9
½ and less than 1 month	422	150	168	68	36	100.0	35.5	39.9	16.1	8.5
1 and less than 2 months	312	120	103	64	25	100.0	38.5	33.0	20.5	8.0
2 and less than 3 months	108	23	52	28	5	100.0	21.3	48.2	25.9	4.6
3 months or more	106	31	37	32	6	100.0	29.2	34.9	30.2	5.7

[1] Includes strikes for which sufficient information was not available, as well as those involving rival unions, jurisdiction, and other questions, the results of which cannot be evaluated in terms of their effect on the welfare of all workers concerned.

In table 14 the results of strikes in relation to the number of workers involved are indicated. A large majority of the small strikes were either won or lost whereas the larger strikes tended to result in compromise settlements. About 46 percent of the strikes involving fewer than 20 workers were won, 26 percent were lost and only 20 percent were compromised. Of the strikes involving 1,000 or more workers 29 percent were won, only 7 percent were lost, and 58 percent were compromised.

TABLE 14.—*Results of Strikes Ending in 1940 in Relation to Number of Workers Involved*

Number of workers involved	Number of strikes resulting in—					Percent of strikes resulting in—				
	Total	Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other[1]	Total	Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other[1]
Total	2,493	1,047	794	433	219	100.0	42.0	31.8	17.4	8.8
6 and under 20	610	283	122	159	46	100.0	46.4	20.0	26.1	7.5
20 and under 100	1,039	457	278	197	107	100.0	43.9	26.8	19.0	10.3
100 and under 250	425	171	179	42	33	100.0	40.2	42.1	9.9	7.8
250 and under 500	193	75	84	17	17	100.0	38.9	43.5	8.8	8.8
500 and under 1,000	116	29	67	10	10	100.0	25.0	57.8	8.6	8.6
1,000 and under 5,000	95	30	53	7	5	100.0	31.6	55.7	7.4	5.3
5,000 and under 10,000	11	2	7	1	1	100.0	18.2	63.6	9.1	9.1
10,000 and over	4	-------	4	-------	-------	100.0	-------	100.0	-------	-------

[1] Includes strikes for which sufficient information was not available, as well as those involving rival unions, jurisdiction, and other questions, the results of which cannot be evaluated in terms of their effect on the welfare of all workers concerned.

Methods of Negotiating Settlements

Nearly 43 percent of the strikes ending in 1940 were settled with the assistance of Government officials or boards. On the average these were the larger and more prolonged strikes, as is evidenced by the fact that they included about 59 percent of the total workers involved in all strikes and accounted for 70 percent of the total idleness. Approximately 40 percent of the strikes, which included 35 percent of the total workers and accounted for 21 percent of the total idleness, were settled directly between employers and union officials. Private conciliators or arbitrators assisted in settling 33 strikes (1.3 percent of the total) during the year. Nearly 15 percent of the strikes, which included 5 percent of the total workers and accounted for 9 percent of the total idleness, were terminated without formal settlements. In most of these cases the strikers discontinued their strikes and returned to work on the employers' terms or they lost their jobs entirely when the management replaced them with new workers, moved to other localities, or went out of business.

Of the 1,066 strikes settled with the assistance of Government officials or boards, 1,021 were settled through conciliation or mediation. Arbitration was used in 45 cases. Of the 33 settled with the aid of private conciliators or arbitrators, conciliation methods were used in 11 and arbitration in 22. In 67 out of 2,493 strikes ending during 1940, work was resumed when both parties agreed to turn over some or all of the matters in dispute to a neutral person for final settlement.

TABLE 15.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in 1940*

Agency by which negotiations toward settlements were carried on	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All agencies	2,493	100.0	573,364	100.0	6,679,745	100.0
Employers and workers directly	24	1.0	2,509	.4	19,550	.3
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	1,004	40.3	200,168	34.9	1,376,028	20.6
Government officials or boards	1,066	42.7	336,172	58.7	4,664,482	69.8
Private conciliators or arbitrators	33	1.3	5,416	.9	33,040	.5
Terminated without formal settlement	366	14.7	29,099	5.1	586,645	8.8

ROLE OF INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES IN CHINA'S WAR ECONOMY

A STRONG element in China's defense against the economic as well as military warfare that is being waged by Japan is the work of the industrial cooperatives. Their work is threefold in purpose: To provide work for refugees and other unemployed, to produce commodities needed by the civilians as well as the armed forces, and to help make China economically self-sufficient not only now but for the future. No first-hand data are available to the Bureau of Labor Statistics regarding the work and development of these organizations; there have been, however, many excellent reports in various publications, and the present article is based upon these.

Most of China's industrial plants were in the eastern Provinces, and especially in the coastal cities. After the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in the summer of 1937, these industrial plants were among the first targets. It was estimated that by June 1939, in the Shanghai-Wusih area alone, some 70 percent of China's modern factories had been destroyed and the scrap iron and usable machinery taken to Japan. In Shanghai more than 140,000 business and factory buildings and houses had been demolished. The object of this destruction was not only to obtain military control of the country and the rivers, which are important media of transportation, but also, by destroying China's industries, to make her economically dependent upon Japan for goods to satisfy the needs of the people.

From the devastated coastal areas hordes of refugees—industrial workers of all kinds, and their families—fled toward the interior of the country. These people were destitute and in need of food and supplies of all kinds. The problem of caring for them and for the residents of the districts into which they fled was an enormous one. There were literally millions of unemployed needing work and a whole population needing goods of all kinds. Chinese industry was wrecked. One writer noted that so great was the lack of Chinese-manufactured goods that Chinese soldiers were going out to fight the Japanese in uniforms made of Japanese cloth and wearing shoes made in Japan.

However, in attempting to rebuild a native industry it was evident that any concentration of plants, or even a single factory recognizable as such, was doomed to destruction by bombing as soon as discovered. Only small, decentralized units could hope to survive. Before the industrial revolution China had been a land of small hand industries. To this old economy, present-day China has had to return, using the cooperative method of production.

Not only the sentiment of the populace but also the very fact of the blockade created a situation favorable to the development of small

domestic industry. A great reservoir of labor, skilled and unskilled, was available, as well as vast supplies of raw materials such as iron, coal, oil, and timber.

In July 1938 the Chinese Government appointed a commission for the establishment of industrial cooperatives. Funds aggregating 1,520,000 Chinese dollars were provided by the Government in the fiscal year 1938–39. An expert staff was sent out to organize small industries which could be moved from place to place as the exigencies of war demanded.

The funds were parceled out in small loans to workmen skilled in various lines. The first cooperatives were started in the Province of Shensi, in the north central part of China. The first unit was formed by a group of blacksmiths in Shensi. Another was composed of 30 stocking knitters who had fled from bombed Sian, carrying their knitting machines with them. Another was formed by a master printer, who, with his seven workmen and their families, had crossed parts of four Provinces. They were facing starvation when they saw a poster of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, inviting workers to join in the movement.

Within 2 months there were 40 cooperatives at work in the Province of Shensi. By July 1939 this number had grown to 100, and there were 40 in western Hunan and 20 in the Province of Kiangsi. Latest reports indicate that there are now in Free China over 2,000 of these units. The value of their products is estimated at over $500,000 per month, and some 250 separate items are being produced.

This movement has been built upon a threefold foundation—sound industrial experience, expert knowledge of cooperative principles, and the old Chinese tradition of family and village industry.

How the System Operates

Organization work is carried on from five regional headquarters covering the whole of Free China—an area about the size of all of Europe. This area extends in a wide crescent covering some 2,000 miles, across 10 Provinces.

The organization procedure is simple. Posters are displayed in towns and villages, offering work to the destitute, who are asked to report to the registration officer regarding their experience and requirements.

Seven or more workers are required in order to start a unit. Each must subscribe for a $2 share, making a down payment of at least 5 cents. Units operate under regulations drawn up by the League of Nations' expert on cooperatives. The units are independent and self-governing. Directors are chosen by vote of the members. Wages are decided by the members and depend on the financial status of the unit.

Before a cooperative is registered for a loan, the headquarters office of that region makes a study of the need for the project, the costs, equipment, and raw materials available. If the report is favorable a contract for a loan is made.

Incredibly small sums are involved in these transactions. The sum of $50 is sufficient to finance a shop for making garments or surgical gauze, $100 will start a candle-making unit, and $200 a cotton-weaving unit. The loans thus far made have ranged from $50 to $7,000. A typical loan to finance the purchase of shop equipment runs for 5 years, at an interest rate of 6 percent. Loans for raw materials bear 8-percent interest.

At the end of the first year of the system, many of the cooperatives were already self-supporting. Goods are scarce, prices are high, and there is such a demand that no unit has any difficulty in disposing of its products. Many of the cooperatives have repaid their loans in full; all have paid their interest. Almost none have failed.

In order to safeguard the cooperative character of the units, regulations have been laid down for the allocation of reserves and funds for extension of the business. The amount that may be returned in dividends is limited in order to guard against the charging of excessive prices.

Administration and Membership

The movement has been fortunate in enlisting an unusually high type of technical personnel. Led by a New Zealander with many years' experience as a factory inspector in Shanghai, the movement attracted a group of American-trained Chinese industrial engineers. These men left highly paid private jobs in order to participate in the organization of industrial cooperatives. Dozens of other professional people, returned students, and technicians have also volunteered, at wages scarcely high enough to furnish food and shelter.

These and others attracted by their example have mobilized thousands of skilled craftsmen, and they in turn are training other thousands of the refugees and farmers. A recent report states:

> Each cooperative is a sort of seedbed from which other workers can get the experience necessary to start their own work. This is no labor army waiting helplessly until some official at headquarters decides what they are to do. It is a spontaneous grass-roots movement, in which the people themselves use all the initiative and capacity for self-help that they possess.

One report points out that "their participation in cooperative management has been the first taste of democracy any of these poor people have ever dreamed of—and the heightening of morale is one of the greatest benefits of the cooperative project."

Not only has the new movement provided work and a livelihood for thousands of unemployed, but it has provided the means of re-

habilitation for many. Thus, one of the most enthusiastic sections of the movement consists of the cooperatives formed of disabled soldiers. Unable to bear arms, these men have gone into the cooperatives, and their units are reported to be the model workshops in Kiangsi Province.

Accomplishments in Relation to Need

The industries formed are of three classes: (1) Those suitable for operation near or even behind the enemy lines, i. e., requiring such light equipment that the whole plant can be picked up and carried out of harm's way; (2) industries somewhat heavier, for areas farther away from the war operations; (3) heavy, primary enterprises for the interior more-peaceful parts of the country.

The groups camouflage their plants, or operate in houses, temples, or even in caves, with the object of escaping enemy notice. They have an average work force of from 25 to 30 persons, but some of the larger ones range as high as 250.

Built in small, compact units, these workshops develop their own sources of raw materials and power and their own transportation facilities, train their own workers, and organize their own marketing methods. Fullest possible use is made of waste materials and of local resources.

The units are making such varied products as hosiery, cloth, blankets, leather goods, flour, soap, candles, medical supplies, paper, pottery, glass, dry cells for batteries, boats, matches, towels, and tooth paste. They are also mining coal, iron, gold, wolframite, and asbestos, and carrying on such other activities as printing, and the running of oil presses, power plants, foundries, and transport services.

An important feature of the cooperative production is the manufacture of secondary machines, using waterpower lathes. Charcoal motors are produced which operate with gas from charcoal and produce no smoke to attract notice. Steel is poured into hand-made molds by hand methods. Ancient hand machines are redesigned for greater efficiency. It is said that by substituting a single iron gear for a wooden one, in an old-model loom, the operators were able to produce in an hour as much as they formerly produced in a day. Even the old American spinning wheel has been remodeled and is being used for making wool yarns. One cooperative machine shop produced 100 of these wheels a day; 7,500 were needed for one order of 100,000 army blankets.

One of the important accomplishments of the cooperatives has been their assistance in supplying the needs of the Chinese army. The manufacture of boats and other means of transport, the weaving and dyeing of cloth and its fashioning into uniforms and blankets, the tan-

ning of leather and the making of shoes, the knitting of socks, and the manufacture of medical supplies (alcohol, medical cotton, and gauze) have all contributed to keep the army in fighting trim. The April 1941 bulletin of the American Committee in Aid of Chinese Industrial Cooperatives states that "A quarter of a million blankets have been produced so far this season by northwest cooperative units. Last year 23 co-ops turned out 6,702 bales of cloth for the Army. Five other co-ops in Paochi supplied 300 tons of charcoal to the public transport service in the northwest highways." The director of the system believes that (given the necessary funds) the cooperatives can eventually, also, make China's guerrilla armies self-sufficient in light arms.

The leaders aim at the creation of a network of 30,000 units employing at least a million persons throughout the country. These would be divided among six main groups of industries—textiles, foodstuffs, chemicals, metalwork, educational necessaries, and miscellaneous items.

Recent reports place the number of units already formed at between 2,000 and 3,000, in at least 15 Provinces. It is estimated that these have some 40,000 members, employ about 500,000 additional persons, and serve about 4,000,000. It is estimated that the value of goods produced averages about $500,000 per month. This is the more remarkable when it is considered that a large proportion of the workers are unskilled and that only the most primitive means of production are available.

However, estimates of the war refugees range from 30 to 60 million, and of these some 15 to 16 million are destitute. The Chinese Government is assisting with what funds it can spare, some of the banks in various parts of China have advanced money to be used in loans, and patriotic rich people in China have helped. Funds in varying amounts are also being donated from outside countries. However, the problem far exceeds the resources at hand.

Consumers' and Other Cooperatives

Along with the development of the industrial units has gone the establishment of consumers' cooperatives. By the end of May 1940 there were in 16 Provinces of China 520 such associations, of which 241 were in the Province of Kiangsi. In that Province the associations are supplying not only the civilians but also the army. In Nanchang, the capital, the cooperative association kept its doors open right up to the time of occupation by the Japanese.

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In the Province of Chekiang a cooperative wholesale association was organized to serve the 45 retail associations. During the last 7 months of 1939 its sales amounted to $828,222. The most important commodities handled by it are cotton yarn, clothing, kerosene, and soap.

The Province of Szechwan has 39 consumers' cooperatives. In that Province, however, cooperative credit is the most important phase of cooperation. At the end of February 1940 there were 16,668 credit associations.

In Chungking, the capital of China, the 46 consumers' cooperatives have a combined membership of 26,000 persons. These associations tend to follow occupational lines. The associations of Government officials lead in importance, followed in order by those of "workers," students, and other classes.

Propaganda and educational work for the expansion of consumers' cooperatives is being financed by the Chinese Government. To overcome the shortage of experienced managers a 2-month correspondence course was held in April and May 1940.

SOURCES: This article is based on data from the following: International Labor Office, Cooperative Information No. 8, 1939; International Cooperative Alliance, Review of International Cooperation (London), issues of July 1939, February 1940, and October 1940; Statement by Ida Pruitt, of Peking Union Medical College; This Week Magazine, May 21, 1939: Facts About China, by Pearl Buck; Business Week, February 8, 1941: Co-ops Aid China; Saturday Evening Post, February 8, 1941: China's Blitzbuilder, Rewi Alley, by Edgar Snow; Institute of Pacific Relations, Pacific Affairs (New York). September 1939: China's New Line of Industrial Defense, by Nym Wales; Asia, January 1940: Tale of a Spinning Wheel, by Lewis S. C Smythe, and The Sungpan Valley Awakens, by Rewi Alley; and recent releases of American Committee for Chinese Industrial Cooperatives (New York).

LABOR CONDITIONS IN ARGENTINA, 1940 [1]

ABNORMAL conditions resulting from the international situation in 1939 caused a considerable dislocation of labor in Argentina in 1940, which affected rural as well as commercial and industrial activities. As unemployment statistics are not available for the entire country nor for all phases of labor, figures shown in the following paragraphs should be considered as applying only to the relatively few industrial and other pursuits for which statistics are compiled, and even these should not be considered as entirely accurate.

Unemployment

The latest study of unemployment, made by the Argentine Bureau of Labor in September 1940, indicated that at that time some 180,700 persons were out of work, of whom more than half were said to be in the city of Buenos Aires alone. Since that date, however, unemployment is reported to have increased to the point where it is now a factor seriously disturbing to the political and social life of the country. Classified by the principal activities, 100,053 persons were in primary activities, 59,523 in commerce and industry, and 21,124 in transportation and communications services. In the city of Buenos Aires, 40,513 persons in these three groups were out of employment: 6,668 from primary activities, 25,063 from commerce and industry, and 8,782 from the transportation and communications services.

It is estimated that, in rural employments, the annual number affected by seasonal unemployment averages around 50,000, as a result of the termination of planting, harvesting, the grape season, the fruit season, the cotton season, etc. However, it is reported from the various Provinces and Territories that, in addition, the almost complete stoppage of the country's exports has produced serious results, especially in the livestock and packinghouse industries, forestry, and fisheries. Unprecedented rains, floods, and tornadoes also ruined crops and harvests in many parts of the country, especially in the Province of Buenos Aires; this likewise contributed to the increase in unemployment in 1940.

With respect to commercial and industrial activities, Buenos Aires has suffered more than the interior of the country as a result of the expansion of the war in Europe, as almost all of the country's important industries are located in the city and its environs, and 60 percent of the nation's commerce passes through its port.

Table 1 shows the number of persons thrown out of employment and the resulting wage loss, in the industries in Buenos Aires most adversely affected.

[1] Data are from report of T. L. Hughes, United States commercial attaché at Buenos Aires.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Persons Thrown Out of Employment in Buenos Aires in 1940, by Industry, and Average and Total Monthly Wage Loss*

[Average exchange rate of Argentine peso in 1940=29.8 cents]

Industry group	Number of persons thrown out of employment	Average monthly wage	Total monthly wage loss
		Pesos	*Pesos*
All industry groups	21,846	160	3,497,980
Construction and building	7,685	171	1,314,135
Metal working	7,092	141	999,972
Chemical	1,995	134	267,330
Lumber and woodworking	1,337	142	189,854
Graphic arts	500	168	89,000
Commerce	3,237	197	637,689

In table 2 are shown the industries in Buenos Aires most stimulated by the abnormal conditions prevailing in 1940, the number of persons employed as a direct result, the average monthly wage which they receive, and the total monthly increase in earnings.

TABLE 2.—*New Employment in Specified Industries in Buenos Aires in 1940, Average Monthly Wage, and Total Monthly Increase in Earnings*

[Average exchange rate of Argentine peso in 1940=29.8 cents]

Industry group	Number of persons employed	Average monthly wage	Total monthly increase in earnings
		Pesos	*Pesos*
All industry groups	11,972	104	1,248,940
Textile manufacture	10,835	104	1,873,894
Foodstuffs	1,106	129	142,674
Primary activities	16	164	2,624
Electricity, gas, and power	15	212	3,180

As a direct result of the war in Europe, therefore, it would appear that, notwithstanding the large increases in personnel in some industries, the total number unemployed in Buenos Aires was augmented by 9,874, and the total monthly earnings in wages were reduced by 2,249,040 pesos. In addition, a serious reduction in the number of working hours is reported, amounting to almost 20 percent, which in turn is reflected in a decrease in earnings amounting to approximately 19.17 percent.

Construction and port labor experienced perhaps the most severe unemployment and reduction of number of working hours brought about by the European situation. There are approximately 8,000 workers for the port of Buenos Aires. Of these only 2,383 were able to find work in 1939; this number fell to 1,933 in the first 6 months of 1940 and is reported to have dropped by 500 in the last 6 months of that year, so that at the present time only about 1,400 port laborers are estimated to have employment.

In order to ameliorate unemployment in the construction and building trades, the so-called Pinedo Plan, was presented to the Argentine Congress toward the latter part of 1940. This was a low-cost housing program involving over 2,000,000 pesos. No final action had been taken on this bill by the end of February 1941.

Strikes

Advance figures of the Argentine Bureau of Labor indicate that there was a slight increase in the number of strikes in 1940, 53 as against 49 in 1939. According to the Bureau, however, only one strike in 1940, the graphic arts strike which occurred in October, reached such proportions as to affect the social and economic life of the country.

The total number of persons involved in the 53 strikes recorded in 1940 is estimated at 12,721, representing a loss in working days of 224,151, and a total wage loss amounting to 1,061,455.90 pesos.

Cost of Living

The general cost-of-living index in Argentina in 1940, based on October 1933=100, indicates a rise of 3 points from 1939, or from 112.4 to 115.0. The months of greatest increase were the first 6 months of the year, reflecting the disturbing effect of European conditions on Argentine imports of primary items, especially construction materials and certain textiles.

A general increase in rents was especially noticeable as the result of a revaluation of property in 1939 and also because of the war, as the latter precipitated a shortage in construction-material imports and a consequent rise in their prices.

The prices of meat, potatoes, vegetable oils, and certain fruits and vegetables rose so steeply that a public protest was lodged with the Government, especially with respect to meat. Probably as a result of Government intervention, the cost-of-living index in November and December of 1940 was several points lower than in the corresponding months in 1939.

Defense Activities and Conditions

EMPLOYMENT TRENDS AND DEFENSE LABOR REQUIREMENTS[1]

By A. F. Hinrichs, *Acting Commissioner of Labor Statistics*

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics has two assignments in connection with employment in defense industries. The first is to measure current changes in employment. The second is to forecast the labor requirements of the defense program.

From the record of current employment, maintained over many years through the cooperation of thousands of reporting employers, we see in perspective the recent demands that have been made on the labor market. In 1937 an average of 35,560,000 persons was engaged in nonagricultural employments. Then came a slump. In January 1940, though employment was greater than in 1938 or 1939, the total was still only 34,475,000. These figures indicate one of the essential relationships of employment to the defense program in 1940. During 1940 employment in most industries was climbing back to earlier peak levels. By and large, most employers were rehiring men and women who had had recent experience in occupations similar to those for which they were wanted.

By the late fall of 1940 this condition was no longer general. In plant after plant, and industry after industry, employment in the closing months of the year reached new high levels. By January 1941 nonagricultural employment totaled 36,343,000, an increase of 1,868,000 over the year. This is the highest January total on record.

Most of this increase occurred in manufacturing and construction. Thus there was an increase from January 1940 to January 1941 of 781,000 among wage and salaried workers in manufacturing and 606,000 in construction. The Government establishment—exclusive of men in military service but including the civilian employees of the Army and Navy, as well as other defense agencies—had increased by 227,000. Smaller increases occurred in trade (125,000); in transportation and public utilities (75,000); and in financial and service establishments (62,000). As a further draft on the labor market there was an increase of 523,000 in the armed forces. Essentially, therefore, during 1940 there was a direct draft on the reservoir of unused manpower involving 2,400,000 people.

[1] An address delivered at the conference on In-Plant Training, called by the Office of Production Management, March 17 and 18, 1941, Washington, D. C.

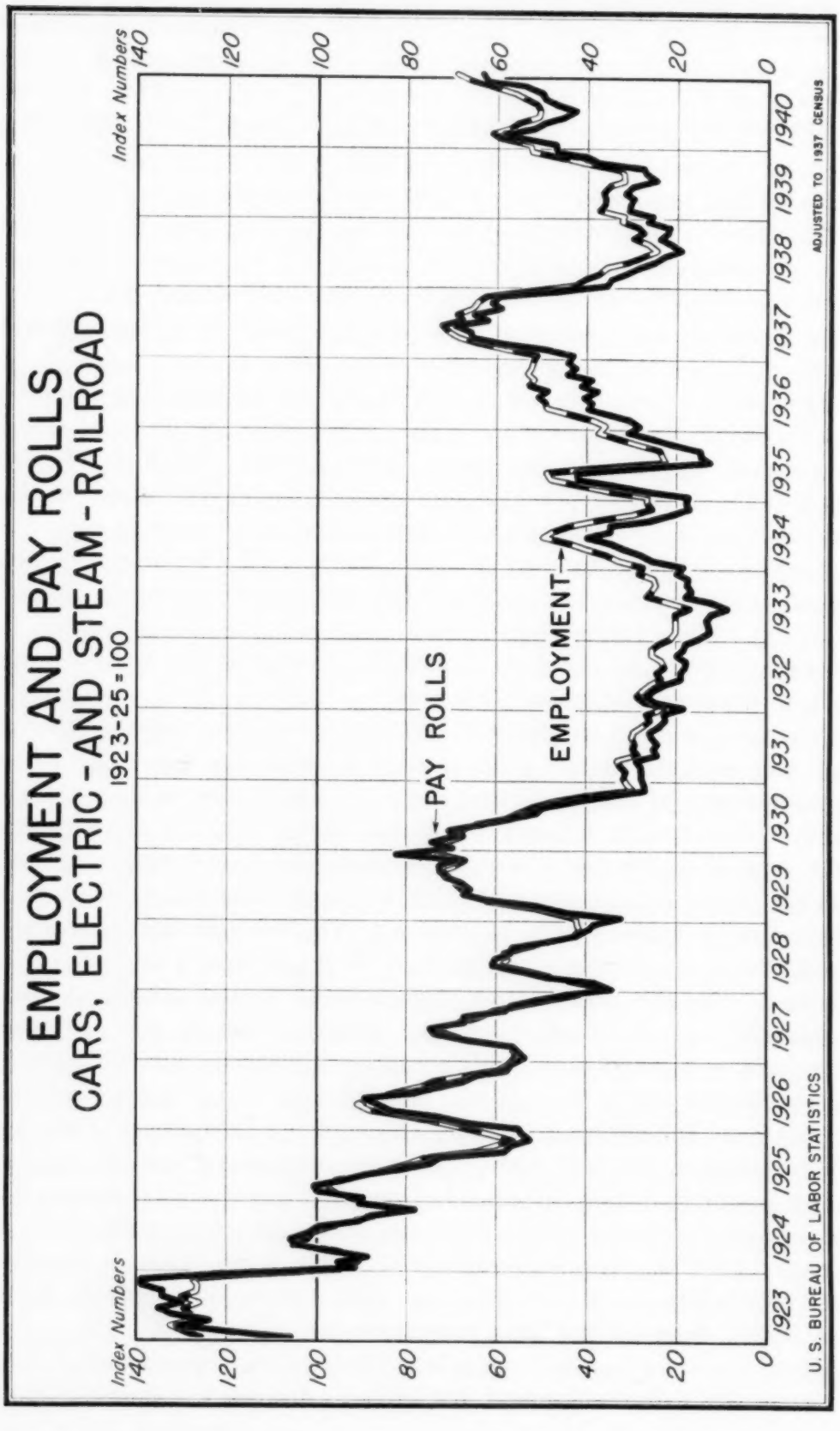
So far, the job of industrial expansion has been relatively easy. Consider as an example, the dramatic rise in steel production. Monthly ingot output increased from just under 4 million tons in April 1940 to nearly 6½ million tons in October. This feat was essentially a matter of organizing existing resources to meet a huge increase in orders. On earlier occasions, with less capacity, the industry had produced nearly 6 million tons monthly.

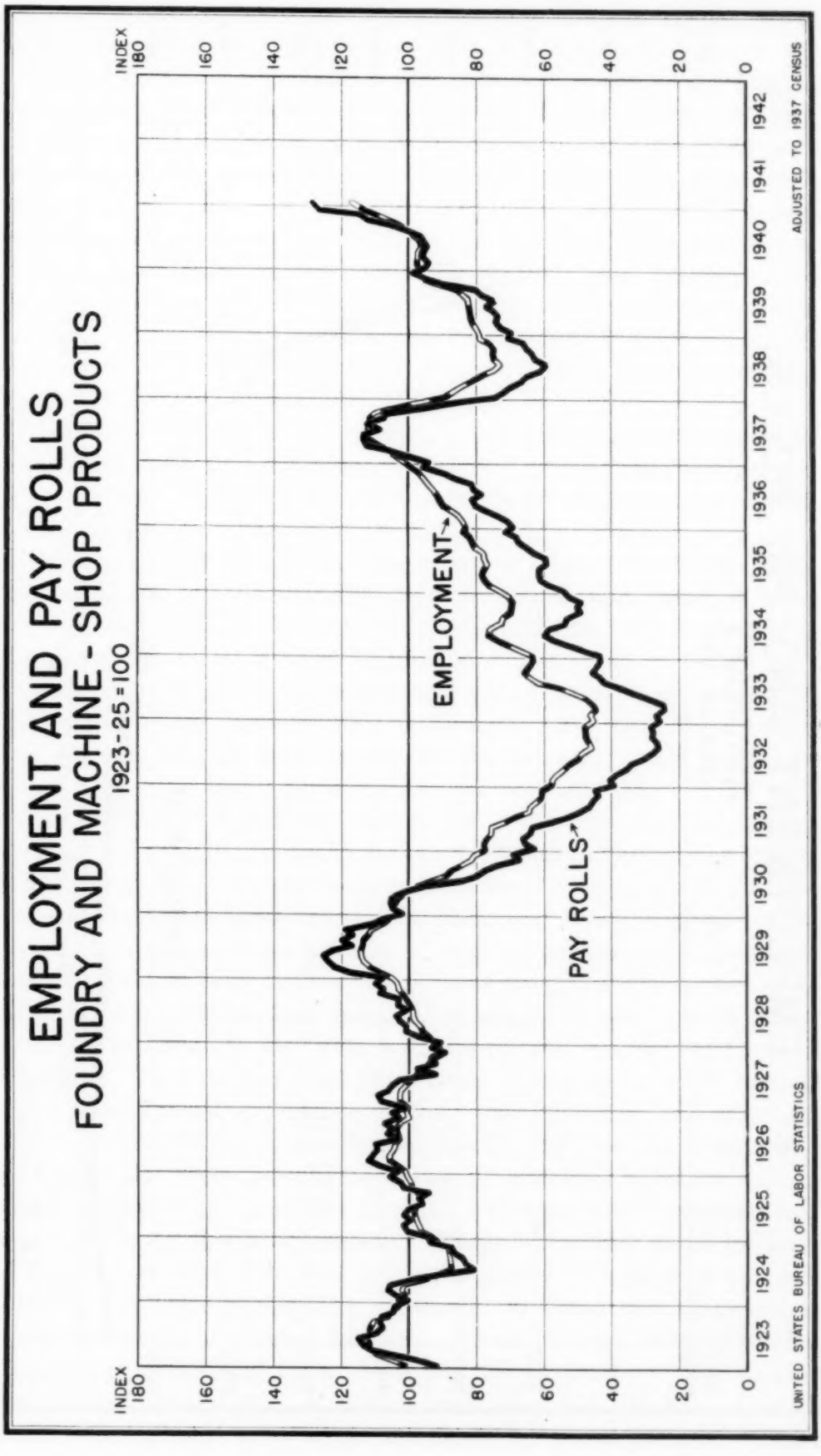
This case is cited only because it is so clear an example of merely putting resources back to work. In the case of labor also we have been generally engaged in putting our resources to work. In industry after industry, for months on end, employment was merely climbing back to levels that had been achieved in 1937.

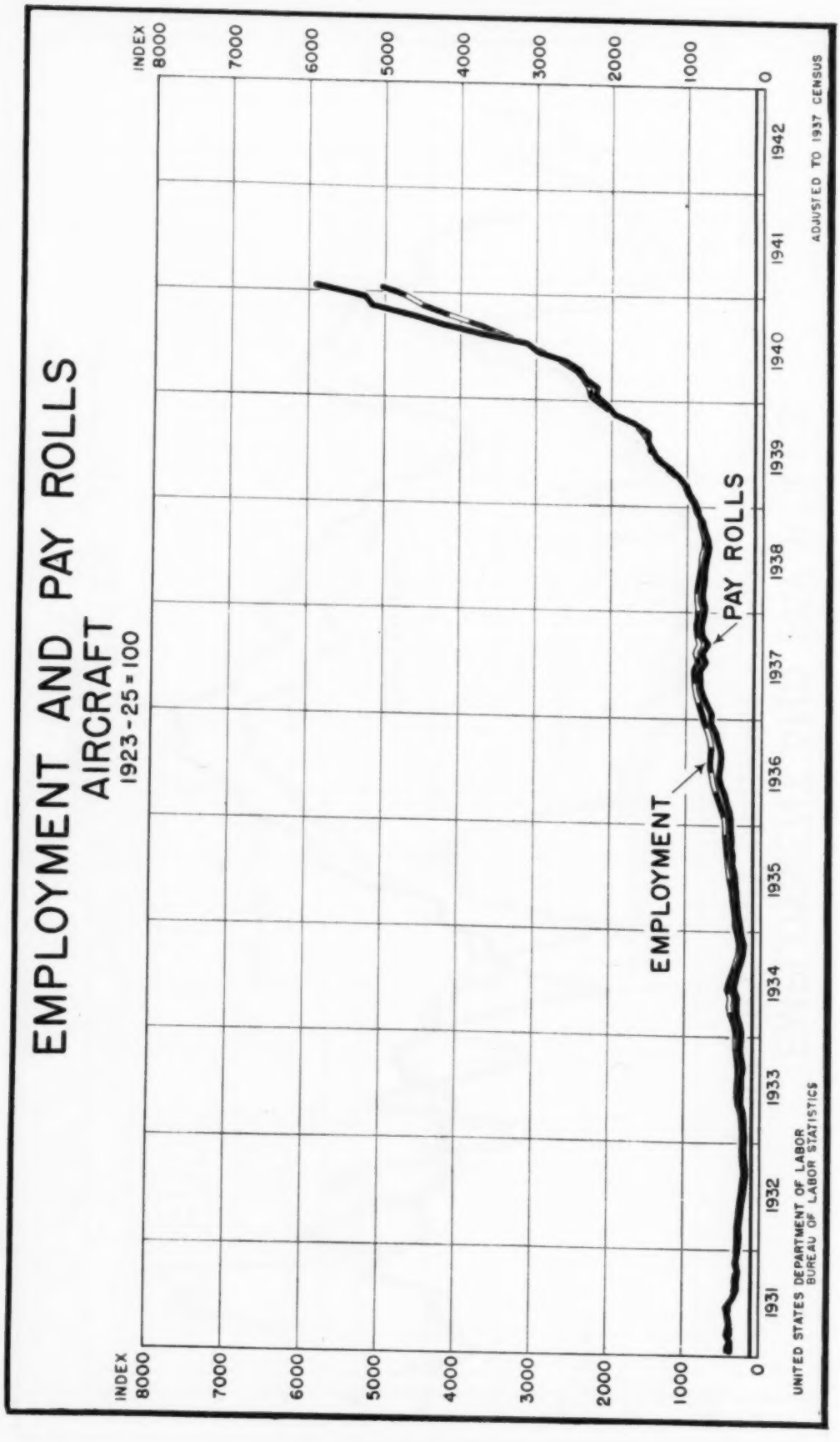
From now on we must expect fundamental expansion through the development of new resources. The period in which we need merely to put fully developed resources to work is nearly finished. In January and February of this year more people have been employed than have ever before been employed at this time of year—and this without counting those in our military forces. The number is nearly 2 million greater than in January 1937 and 1 million greater than in January 1929. Increasingly, from now on, the expansion of the defense program involves an underlying expansion of our resources, both of plant and of trained workers.

It is of course an exaggeration to imply that the defense effort to date has involved merely putting idle resources into use. One of the characteristics of defense activity is that it gives rise to an extraordinarily concentrated demand for special types of labor, of raw materials, and of equipment. So, for example, the employment of wage earners in the manufacture of durable goods increased more than 18 percent from January 1940 to January 1941, an aggregate increase of 701,000 workers. This is now well above the highest level ever before reached. On the other hand, employment in the manufacture of nondurable goods—food, clothing, tobacco, paper and printing, chemicals and petroleum, rubber goods—increased only 2.7 percent. In practically every one of the durable-goods industries that the Department follows each month, employment in January 1941 was greater than in January 1940. (The one exception was the cutting, shaping, and finishing of marble, granite, slate, etc.) Among the nondurable-goods industries there are about 20 with employment in January 1941 at about the same or at lower levels than in January 1940, including such industries as silk and rayon, leather, boots and shoes, flour milling, and petroleum refining.

Even this does not tell the whole story of the concentrated character of the defense demand for labor. Among the durable-goods industries, there are 15 in which employment increased more than 20 percent over the year. The relationship of most of them to defense


EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS
CARS, ELECTRIC-AND STEAM-RAILROAD
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
PAY ROLLS
EMPLOYMENT
1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940
ADJUSTED TO 1937 CENSUS
U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS


EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS
FOUNDRY AND MACHINE - SHOP PRODUCTS
1923-25 = 100
INDEX
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
EMPLOYMENT
PAY ROLLS
1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
ADJUSTED TO 1937 CENSUS


EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS
AIRCRAFT
1923-25=100
INDEX
8000
7000
6000
5000
4000
3000
2000
1000
0
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
1939
1940
1941
1942
EMPLOYMENT
PAY ROLLS
ADJUSTED TO 1937 CENSUS
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

and construction is obvious. Foundries and machine shops; stoves; steam and hot-water heating equipment; aluminum; small tools (tools, not including edge tools, machine tools, files and saws); forgings; brass, bronze, and copper products; electrical machinery; structural and ornamental iron work; and railroad cars—in all of these industries employment increased by 20 to 30 percent or more. Five industries, however, had an extraordinary expansion—machine tools, increasing 45 percent; locomotives, shipbuilding, and engines and turbines, all increasing by nearly 75 percent; and finally aircraft, with an increase of 121 percent over the year. Among the nondurable-goods industries, there is just one significant case of an employment increase of as much as 20 percent. It is an obvious one—explosives—which increased by 45 percent.

Even among these defense industries there have been a number that so far have been going through a recovery phase. Several have not yet reached 1937 peak levels of employment—railroad cars, locomotives, and stoves. (See chart, p. 1128).

For most of them, however, the recovery phase as regards employment ended at the close of the year: foundries and machine shops, forgings, electrical machinery, structural and ornamental metalwork, steam and hot-water heating apparatus. (See chart, p. 1129.)

Of the durable-goods industries that added 20 to 30 percent to their employment from January 1940 to January 1941, only three—aluminum; brass, bronze, and copper products; and small tools—were above 1937 peak levels for a substantial part of 1940.

The brunt of the pressure, almost up to the present time, has been borne by three or four industries—machine tools, shipbuilding, aircraft and aero-engines. As may be seen from the chart on page 1130 aircraft employment more than doubled in 1939, and doubled again in 1940.

Although the need for additional trained workers was apparent in these industries even before the defense program was launched last summer, it is obvious that most other large industries could and did increase employment last year without relying heavily on a training program. To a large extent they could find persons with comparatively recent work experience in their own industry and could even draw extensively upon people previously employed in their plants. This was the more possible because in absolute numbers machine tools, shipbuilding, and the airplane program made comparatively small drafts on the labor market. These have been small industries in comparison with the great industrial giants such as steel and automobiles. A large percentage expansion in these industries did not involve draining the labor market. Thus, in these industries alone, employment increased from about 234,000 in January 1940 to about 424,000 in January 1941, a total increase of about 190,000. Durable-goods employment as a whole increased by about 700,000. Indeed

the recovery of peak levels of employment in foundries and machine shops and in establishments manufacturing electrical machinery, involved reemploying or adding 143,000 workers—more than were added by machine tools, engines, and aircraft in combination. Under these conditions most employers in the durable-goods field could share the labor market with rapidly expanding war industries without encountering undue difficulty in hiring capable and experienced workers. From this point onward, however, there is going to be no easy means of achieving the further expansion of employment that is called for in the durable-goods industries.

Estimated Labor Requirements

The first task of the Bureau of Labor Statistics has been to measure the changes in actual employment. The second is to forecast the labor requirements of the defense program.

As early as last July the Bureau of Labor Statistics made general estimates of the magnitude of the job that was indicated by the defense appropriation bills. They showed the need for clear thinking in terms of a broad training program. For purposes of such over-all estimation it may be assumed that each dollar expended for defense orders requires an hour's labor distributed in plants of final assembly, in fabricating parts and materials, in the extraction of raw materials, and in transporting these goods. Since the dollar also pays for the use of capital facilities all along the line, this is not to say that labor averages a dollar an hour. But for every billion dollars that is spent in a year, nearly half a million workers must be employed.

General figures of employment increases have only a limited usefulness. To provide a basis for administrative decisions, estimates of defense labor requirements must be made in specific terms—in terms of the time and place at which men and women with particular skills are going to be demanded. How many of what kind of workers will be needed? Where and when?

To protect the labor supply against depletion through the draft the Bureau made a study, for the Army and Navy Munitions Board, of occupations which have significance in the national defense program. The report, which covers 760 occupations, from accountants to yardmasters, grades them by the period of training required and by the relative adequacy of the supply.

Specific studies of labor requirements have also been made for a number of industries such as building construction, shipbuilding, aircraft, machine tools, and brass. In these studies the Bureau aims first of all to pool the anticipated requirements of leading producers in order that each may see what the impact of the collective labor need is likely to be.

This pooling of expectations is necessary to sound planning by individual producers. The manufacturer with firm contracts in hand knows his own needs better than any one else in the world can know them. The Bureau asks him for his best estimate of his needs, and from his reply and those of others builds an over-all estimate. This is needed because the labor reservoir, on which each expects to draw, is adequate to the individual needs of most individual employers. It is the size of the collective draft that indicates that labor is going to be one of our most precious resources.

Manufacturers of brass, bronze, and copper products, for example, expect to employ more than 20,000 additional wage and salaried workers in 1941. In January 1941, 112,000 wage earners were employed in this industry. According to the results of a survey conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, employment is expected to increase to 130,800 wage earners in December, an increase of 17 percent. In addition, the plants will require 200 more engineers, 200 draftsmen, 1,000 chemists, and 100 other salaried workers. The estimated number of additional wage earners to be hired during the year includes 5,800 skilled, 7,400 semiskilled, and 5,600 unskilled workers.

The above estimates are based upon reports received from 51 plants employing 63,000 wage earners in January, or 56 percent of the estimated total for the industry. Predictions of expansion during the year were general throughout the reporting establishments. Only one of the plants reported no anticipated increase in employment during the coming year. The estimate does not include any allowance for employment in plants not now in existence, and hence probably errs on the side of conservatism.

Any individual manufacturer of brass products, if his demands alone were to be considered, could easily cover his needs. Even the industry demand for 20,000 or more workers is not large. But manufacturers of electrical machinery, apparatus, and suplipes are also going to be in the market for large numbers of workers. Reports from the electrical machinery industry indicate an increase of 63,100 wage earners, 900 engineers, 1,200 draftsmen, 100 chemists, and 4,000 other salaried workers. This is a total of nearly 70,000 persons to be hired. The wage force will expand by 22 percent between January and December 1941, and the industry will need 23,000 skilled workers, 26,800 semiskilled, and 13,300 unskilled. More than four-fifths of the 108 reporting establishments expected to increase their employment. The reporting group employs 55 percent of the total number of wage earners in the industry.

Machine-tool establishments expect to increase their employment from 80,200 wage earners in January 1941 to 102,800 by December, an increase of 28 percent. They will need 300 additional engineers and

500 more draftsmen and expect to hire 1,800 other salaried workers. This is a total increase of about 25,000 wage and salaried workers. The estimated increase in wage earners will bring the total number by December to a level more than twice as high as the earlier peak reached in 1937. Individual establishments estimate their increased labor needs as high as 75 percent. All but 2 of the 24 reporting establishments predict increased employment in 1941. The reporting establishments on which estimates for this industry are based employ about 30 percent of the workers in the industry.

Particularly noteworthy is the extremely high proportion of skilled workers that will be required. Of the 22,600 additional wage earners demanded, 16,000 are skilled, 4,000 semiskilled, and only 2,600 unskilled.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Labor Requirements in 1941 for Certain Defense Industries*

Industry, and class of worker	January		June		December	
	Estimated number	Index	Estimated number	Index	Estimated number	Index
Brass, bronze, and copper products:						
Wage earners	112,000	100.0	119,600	106.8	130,800	116.8
Skilled	34,000	100.0	36,500	107.3	39,800	117.2
Semiskilled	37,700	100.0	41,400	109.8	45,100	119.6
Unskilled	40,300	100.0	41,700	103.6	45,900	113.8
Salaried employees:						
Engineers	1,100	100.0	1,200	108.4	1,300	113.8
Draftsmen	900	100.0	1,000	107.0	1,100	114.2
Chemists	10,700	100.0	11,200	104.4	11,700	108.5
Other	690	100.0	740	106.9	780	113.1
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies:						
Wage earners	288,500	100.0	322,800	111.9	351,600	121.9
Skilled	77,700	100.0	88,700	114.1	100,700	129.6
Semiskilled	128,000	100.0	144,100	112.6	154,800	120.9
Unskilled	82,800	100.0	90,000	108.7	96,100	116.1
Salaried employees:						
Engineers	8,800	100.0	9,300	106.0	9,700	109.9
Draftsmen	7,400	100.0	8,100	109.4	8,600	115.6
Chemists	700	100.0	760	108.1	800	115.4
Other	50,400	100.0	53,600	106.3	54,400	107.9
Machine tools:						
Wage earners	80,200	100.0	92,800	115.7	102,800	128.3
Skilled	54,800	100.0	63,600	116.1	70,800	129.3
Semiskilled	13,600	100.0	16,000	117.6	17,600	129.2
Unskilled	11,800	100.0	13,200	111.8	14,400	122.4
Salaried employees:						
Engineers	1,100	100.0	1,300	124.4	1,400	134.9
Draftsmen	1,900	100.0	2,200	118.3	2,400	129.8
Other	9,900	100.0	10,900	110.2	11,700	118.7

In these three industries, we can foresee an increase in employment of 20 percent or more in 1941—or of about 105,000 wage earners, of whom nearly 45,000 will be in occupations that are regarded in the industry as skilled, and of 10,000 salaried workers, including 1,400 engineers, 1,900 draftsmen, and 1,100 chemists.

These industries are by no manner of means all that will expand by virtue of the defense effort. They serve, however, to illustrate the expansion in industries that underlie the defense program proper. This expansion will have to be achieved in a labor market in which,

Thus this restricted group of defense industries will require the addition of more than half a million workers in 1941. Nor does this make any substantial allowance for an increase in employment in the extraction and fabrication of raw materials and semifinished products needed to produce these goods. The increase in these selected industries alone is nearly three-quarters as great as the whole increase in durable-goods manufacture in 1940.

The shipbuilding program under contract last November will not reach a peak of employment until November 1942. In November 1940 there were 127,000 in navy yards and private yards at work on the construction of United States Government vessels. By June 1942 there should be 380,000 and by November of that year 388,000.

This increase of nearly a quarter of a million workers between November 1940 and June 1942 represents a compounded monthly increase of 5.9 percent. The average monthly rate from September 1938 to November 1940 was 4.8 percent.

In this case it is the absolute growth rather than the rate that seems staggering.

Here again the occupational requirements are known, involving 450 anglesmiths, 850 blacksmiths, 1,580 boilermakers, 1,890 coppersmiths, 6,660 calkers and chippers, 9,300 electricians, and 31,000 machinists. Among the machinists it is going to be necessary to find 17,500 for the North Atlantic yards, 4,600 for the South Atlantic, 1,000 on the Gulf, 500 on the Great Lakes, and 3,500 on the Pacific Coast. It is a concentrated demand—concentrated both occupationally and geographically.

Factors in Meeting Demand for Labor

Labor demands can be forecast with rough accuracy, but ability to meet the demand cannot. It depends in the first place upon the number of skilled workers unemployed. The number of unemployed registered with the United States Employment Service is not large enough to cover the need for workers already skilled in the metal industries that are expanding. For example, there were not enough boring-mill and machine operators, machine-shop inspectors or planer operators registered with the United States Employment Service at the close of 1940 to meet the 1941 needs of the machine-tool industry alone. This industry alone would require almost all the machine-shop electricians, gear cutters, lathe and screw-machine operators, and milling-machine shapers and operators registered with the United States Employment Service.

Our ability to meet the demand depends further upon the number of workers whose skills are underemployed—upon the number of machinists on assembly lines in automobile plants, for example, or

who are self-employed as storekeepers. We know that this has been an important source of supply for shipyards—more important than the ranks of the unemployed. We do not know how many there are, and, of these, how many can be induced to transfer to work at their craft in defense work. There are indications that this is an easily exhausted reservoir.

Our ability to meet the demand for skilled labor depends not only on the numbers unemployed and underemployed but even more fundamentally upon what employers do. How rapidly will hiring standards be relaxed? To what extent, for example, are employers in nondefense industries going to bar aliens with needed skills? Today in many areas there are skilled workers who cannot be placed because of the spreading tendency to demand citizenship in all employments. To what extent are employers generally going to train new workers and promote workers within the plant and between industries? To what extent are the nonessential industries going to be forced by conditions in the labor market to do training?

The problem is large enough so that our success may well depend upon the extent to which our resources of skilled workers can be spread more or less evenly over industry as well as within a plant or company. The latter process is going on widely. Dilution of the labor force within plants is general. Large companies building plants in new localities are manning them with a skeleton force from the old-established location. There are few cases as yet, however, in which plants or industries have been manned by drawing in an orderly manner on industries with a high proportion of skilled workers.

The problem is tremendous. The difficulties, however, are not insuperable. The ranks of the unemployed will furnish adequate numbers of unskilled workers and of workers available for training in semiskilled jobs. Some skilled workers still can be drawn for work in the metal trades from the ranks of the unemployed. Even more can be found as workers now employed outside of their crafts. In many cases they may require retraining. But training programs throughout the heavy industries—training programs that run all the way from teaching simple semiskilled machine operations to the development of journeymen fully qualified through apprenticeships—are essential to meet the needs of national defense.

ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENSE MEDIATION BOARD

THE National Defense Mediation Board was established by Executive order of March 19, 1941, and was placed in the Office for Emergency Management of the Executive Office of the President. This

Board is composed of 11 members—4 each representing employers and employees, and 3 disinterested persons. An order issued April 4 provided for the appointment of alternate members, each of whom should be designated as alternate for a regular member of the Board.

Clarence A. Dykstra was named chairman of the Board. The other two members representing the public are William H. Davis and Frank P. Graham. Employer representatives are Cy Ching, Walter C. Teagle, Eugene Meyer, and Roger D. Lapham. The labor members are Philip Murray and Thomas Kennedy for the C. I. O. and George Meany and George M. Harrison for the A. F. of L.

Procedure and Functions

Action by the Board is taken only after the Secretary of Labor certifies to the Board that a controversy or dispute has arisen between any employer or group of employers and any employees or organization of employees which obstructs or is likely to hinder or obstruct national defense and which cannot be adjusted by the commissioners of conciliation of the Department of Labor. Disputes coming within the jurisdiction of the Railway Labor Act as amended are excluded from consideration by the Board.

Under the terms of the President's order the Board is authorized—

(*a*) To make every reasonable effort to adjust and settle any such controversy or dispute by assisting the parties thereto to negotiate agreements for that purpose;

(*b*) To afford means for voluntary arbitration with an agreement by the parties thereto to abide by the decision arrived at upon such arbitration, and, when requested by both parties, to designate a person or persons to act as impartial arbitrator or arbitrators of such controversy or dispute;

(*c*) To assist in establishing, when desired by the parties, methods for resolving future controversies or disputes between the parties; and to deal with matters of interest to both parties which may thereafter arise;

(*d*) To investigate issues between employers and employees, and practices and activities thereof, with respect to such controversy or dispute; conduct hearings, take testimony, make findings of fact, and formulate recommendations for the settlement of any such controversy or dispute; and make public such findings and recommendations whenever in the judgment of the Board the interests of industrial peace so require;

(*e*) To request the National Labor Relations Board, in any controversy or dispute relating to the appropriate unit or appropriate representatives to be designated for purposes of collective bargaining, to expedite as much as possible the determination of the appropriate unit or appropriate representatives of the workers.

When a controversy or dispute is referred to the Board, the Chairman, according to the regulations of the Board, designates certain members as a division of the Board to act on the case. Such a division must have at least three members and each of the three groups—

the public, employers, and employees—must be represented on any such division. If a controversy or dispute is brought to the Board's attention but has not been certified to it in the prescribed manner, the Board is required to refer it to the Department of Labor.

In order to settle disputes without interruption in production or transportation, the order specifies that it is the duty of employers and employees to give to the Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor and to the Office of Production Management "(*a*) notice in writing of any desired change in existing agreements, wages, or working conditions; (*b*) full information as to all developments in labor disputes; and (*c*) such sufficient advance notice of any threatened interruptions to continuous production as will permit exploration of all avenues of possible settlement of such controversies so as to avoid strikes, stoppages, or lock-outs."

Of 19 stoppages certified to the National Mediation Board up to the end of April, workers in all but 5 had agreed to return to work although in some cases the Board was continuing study of the issues involved to effect a final settlement. In 4 additional disputes the Board was successful in averting the threatened stoppage pending mediation of existing differences. The status of the cases is given in the following table as of April 30, 1941.

Status of National Defense Mediation Board Cases, End of April 1941

Case	Date of strike	Number of men involved	Date certified to Board	Date of back to work agreement
Universal Cyclops Steel	Jan. 31, 1941	1,400	Mar. 27	Mar. 28
Vanadium Corporation of America	Feb. 10, 1941	225	Mar. 27	Mar. 30
Condenser Corporation	Mar. 10, 1941	2,200	Mar. 27	Apr. 2
International Harvester Co	Jan. 21, 1941	250	Mar. 27	Apr. 2
	Feb. 17, 1941	1,500		
	Jan. 20, 1941	6,000		
	Feb. 28, 1941	5,500		
Snoqualmie Falls Lumber Co	Oct. 28, 1940	1,060	Apr. 1	Apr. 14
Allis-Chalmers Manufacturing Co	Jan. 22, 1941	7,800	Apr. 3	Apr. 6
Seas Shipping Co	Mar. 22, 1941	25	Apr. 5	Apr. 11
Standard Tool Co	Jan. 27, 1941	650	Apr. 5	Apr. 12
Cowles Tool Co	Feb. 27, 1941	80	Apr. 5	Apr. 22
Phelps-Dodge Co	Apr. 8, 1941	1,800	Apr. 8	
J. Sklar Manufacturing Co	Apr. 4, 1941	495	Apr. 9	
Minneapolis Moline Power Implement Co	[1]	2,100	Apr. 15	Apr. 19 [2]
California Metal Trades Association	Apr. 7, 1941	1,500	Apr. 15	Apr. 27
Birdsboro Steel Foundry & Machine Co	Apr. 4, 1941	1,209	Apr. 17	Apr. 21
Arcadia Knitting Mills	Apr. 3, 1941	210	Apr. 17	
Kellogg Switchboard & Supply Co	[3]	580	Apr. 21	
John A. Roebling Sons Co	Apr. 15, 1941	6,500	Apr. 22	Apr. 29
American Car & Foundry Co	Apr. 15, 1941	1,500	Apr. 22	Apr. 26
American Potash & Chemical Co	Mar. 15, 1941	1,300	Apr. 23	
Bituminous Coal	Apr. 2, 1941	400,000	Apr. 24	Apr. 28
General Motors	[3]	160,000	Apr. 25	
Minneapolis Honeywell Regulator Co	[3]	2,000	Apr. 28	
Utica and Mohawk Mills	Mar. 25, 1941	2,000	Apr. 30	

[1] No strike.
[2] Settled on this date without a strike being called.
[3] Postponed at request of Board.

LABOR REQUIREMENTS OF MACHINE-TOOL INDUSTRY UNDER DEFENSE PROGRAM

A SPECIAL employment survey conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in January provides information concerning the 1941 labor requirements for a selected group of machine-tool companies. These firms, collectively, formed a sample representing approximately 28 percent of the industry on a basis of employment in the month considered. For the purpose of estimating the future labor requirements of the entire industry the sample was assumed to be typical of the whole and the reported labor requirements were converted into figures representing the aggregate.

Such a conversion indicates that an estimated 22,600 additional wage earners will be required by the industry between January and December 1941, bringing total employment to approximately 102,800 at the end of the year. This addition to the labor force during 1941 will be much the same as that in 1940 and will mark a new high in employment for the industry at a level nearly 85 percent higher than that of January 1940, and over 100 percent above the earlier peak in October 1937.

In addition to wage-earner requirements for 1941, the survey produced similar information concerning salaried employees. An estimated 2,600 salaried employees, including 300 engineers and 500 draftsmen, will be required by the machine-tool industry between January and December 1941.

Labor Requirements by Occupations

In addition to knowledge of the gross number of workers required, it is important to know the occupational characteristics of the workers needed. It is estimated that of the 22,600 wage earners to be added in 1941 approximately 46 percent will be skilled, 40 percent semiskilled, and 14 percent unskilled. These estimates, however, are based on an occupational study made in 1938, and it may be that the increasing trend toward specialization and narrower job assignments in the industry will cause some reduction in the percentage of skilled workers needed.

The two largest occupational groups involved are machine operators and assemblers who will comprise respectively about 36.3 and 18.5 percent of total requirements. Particularly important in these groups will be lathe, boring-mill, grinding-machine and milling-machine operators, tool and die makers, and inspectors and testers.

Labor Turn-Over

Examination of labor turn-over data indicates that the problem is one which must be taken into account in planning additions to the labor force necessary to meet the 1941 schedule of production. On the basis of such examination and with knowledge of the estimated net labor requirements of the industry in 1941, the effect of such separations has been projected forward to cover the current year. Although such a forecast cannot be made with certainty, it indicates that there will be an approximate total of 21,000 separations in the industry for the calendar year 1941. Of this total a substantial number will be accounted for by "quits," many of which may represent transfers within the industry and hence no net loss. On the other hand, discharges and permanent separations combined are expected to account for over 5,000 separations, representing an actual loss of manpower for which replacements must be found.

Subcontracting

Subcontracting is becoming increasingly important in the production of machine tools. The fact that the machine-tool industry as a whole is working to capacity indicates that the greater part of such subcontracts is probably being let to manufacturers not normally identified with the industry but who have equipment and manpower at their command adaptable to that type of production. Interesting examples of such adaptations are firms ordinarily engaged in the manufacture of rugs, printing presses, and shoe machinery, that are now, under license, building complete machine tools on a subcontract basis. Many other manufacturing industries are known to be making parts which are finished and assembled in the plants of the primary machine-tool companies.

The Office of Production Management is giving definite encouragement to the application of the subcontracting practice, and it is expected that more and more facilities outside the industry proper will be utilized for the production of machine tools in 1941. As these facilities are employed, further demands will be imposed on the labor market which are not accounted for in the estimates for the industry proper.

Importance and Characteristics of Machine-Tool Industry

The machine-tool industry in 1939 produced goods to the estimated value of $221,900,000. In 1940 the value of product figure was $450,000,000, or more than double that of the preceding year. During the current year (1941) the industry is expected to produce approximately $750,000,000.

These tremendous increases in the volume of production have transcended the normal productive capacity of the industry and have made rapid expansion necessary. Such expansion has created problems of financing, purchasing of equipment, erection of buildings, and the hiring and training of new personnel.

Location of plants.—The machine-tool industry is highly concentrated geographically, being largely confined to the East North Central, the New England, and the Middle Atlantic industrial areas. These three areas, which in 1940 employed 51.6, 34.2, and 11.8 percent, respectively, of the total persons in the industry, together accounted for 98 percent of the whole labor force of the industry. Examination of statistics for previous years indicates that much the same situation has prevailed since at least 1927.

Government assistance.—The Federal Government has sought to encourage expansion of the industry in order to meet these extraordinary demands by offering special financial assistance to individual plants. In all, 135 separate machine-tool plants have received in the aggregate since June 1940 (or have pending applications for) more than $44,416,000 to be used for increasing their production facilities. It is interesting to note that the East North Central States combined have taken fuller advantage of this Government assistance than any other region, a fact which may be expected to result in an even greater concentration of industry within that area.

CHARACTERISTICS OF RECENTLY HIRED SHIPBUILDING LABOR [1]

MORE than one-third (36.6 percent) of the skilled workers recently employed by a number of the shipbuilders on the Atlantic coast were recruited from manufacturing industries (including other shipyards). Nonmanufacturing industries contributed more than one-fourth (29.0 percent) of the 1,752 new workers included in the sample, and nearly one-fifth (18.4 percent) were obtained from the ranks of the unemployed.

In this study of new accessions in shipbuilding labor, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, five private shipyards and one United States Navy Yard were visited during the last 3 months of 1940 and January 1941. These yards were all on the Atlantic coast, from Massachusetts to Virginia. The purpose of these visits was to obtain information pertaining to the characteristics of workers hired in skilled occupations since June 1, 1940, when the tremendous expansion in the shipbuilding industry started. Included in the study were 2,546 workers, or about 85 percent of the skilled accessions in these yards during the period covered.

[1] Prepared by O. R. Mann of the Bureau's Defense Labor Requirements Unit.

The employees covered included those hired as shipfitters, machinists, electricians, sheet-metal workers, and welders. Information requested included occupation, date hired, age, marital status, number of dependents, former industry, and former employer. These data were obtained by the Bureau's representatives from the individual applications or from questionnaires filled in directly by the workers.

Former Industrial Affiliation [2]

During the months of June to October, inclusive, manufacturing industries as a whole contributed more skilled workers to the shipbuilding industry than any other single group (table 1). Vital defense industries were not drawn on heavily except in October when 18.8 percent of all skilled accessions came from the machine-tool industry and other shipbuilding, both private and Government, with an additional 3.1 percent coming from the aircraft and aircraft-engine industry. It should be kept in mind, however, that although the companies included under "other manufacturing" are not devoting their entire production to defense work, they do have large defense orders and any large-scale drains on their skilled personnel might seriously impair the defense program.

TABLE 1.—*Industrial Sources of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, June 1940 to December 1940*

Industrial Source	Total		Percent hired in each month						
	Number	Percent	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Manufacturing industries	641	36.6	41.0	33.6	36.7	40.9	35.9	27.6	21.3
Aircraft and aircraft engines	20	1.1	.5	.4	.8	.9	3.1	3.4	1.3
Firearms, Government	15	.9	.....	1.6	1.1	1.1	.....	.....	.....
Firearms, private	2	.1	.....	.....	.....	.2	.8	.....	.....
Machine tools	51	2.9	2.2	1.2	2.7	3.5	5.5	4.3	1.3
Shipbuilding, Government	38	2.2	2.7	2.4	.6	2.3	5.5	2.6	2.7
Shipbuilding, private	88	5.0	6.6	4.7	4.2	5.6	7.8	2.6	2.7
Other manufacturing	427	24.4	29.0	23.3	27.3	27.3	13.2	14.7	13.3
Nonmanufacturing industries	509	29.0	17.5	26.8	30.6	26.8	25.0	45.7	50.7
Other Government (Federal, State, and local)	71	4.1	4.9	7.5	3.2	3.1	4.7	3.4	2.7
Self-employed	142	8.1	6.0	8.7	5.7	9.4	10.9	12.9	4.0
Work Projects Administration	61	3.5	4.4	3.2	4.0	4.8	.8	.....	.....
Unemployed	322	18.4	26.2	20.2	19.6	14.4	21.9	10.4	20.0
Not reported	6	.3	.....	.....	.2	.6	.8	.....	1.3
Total	1,752	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

During November and December, the situation changed somewhat, with nonmanufacturing industries becoming the largest contributors

[2] In presenting the former industrial affiliation (table 1), data pertaining to 2 companies were omitted because of lack of comparability. One company, for a number of reasons, was forced to lay off numbers of skilled workers during October and November. The second company was known to follow a policy of not hiring workers from other employers without obtaining their permission. As a result, so large a number of its workers reported that they were previously "unemployed" that the figure was of doubtful accuracy.

of labor for shipbuilding. Some men were obtained from Work Projects Administration during the first 5 months of the period covered, but during the last 2 months none were obtained from that source. It is interesting to note that a substantial percentage was recruited from the ranks of the unemployed during each month of the period covered. The percentages vary from month to month, without showing any definite trend, so it seems logical to assume that this source of skilled workers is not yet exhausted.

Geographical Source

Table 2 shows the geographical location of the workers at the time of filing application. Among 2,546 workers included in the study were representatives of 43 States, Venezuela, Honduras, and the Canal Zone. Over three-fourths (76.8 percent) came from the six States in which the shipyards studied were located, i. e., Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. Massachusetts contributed by far the most—nearly one-third (31.2 percent)—with Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia following in the order named.

There is no indication, as yet, that the shipyards are reaching farther afield for their skilled workers since the six States mentioned above furnished 78.5 percent of all workers in June and 77.0 percent in December, the last full month covered by the report.

TABLE 2.—*Geographical Sources of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, June 1940 to January 1941*

State or country	Total	Percent hired in each month							
		June	July	August	September	October	November	December	January
Alabama	0.2			0.2	0.5		0.5		
Arizona	.1		0.2			0.9			
Arkansas	(1)				.2				
California	.2				.2	.5	.5	1.3	
Colorado	.1		.2	.2			.5		
Connecticut	6.1	[2] 2.2	2.2	4.1	8.8	12.7	10.8	6.5	1.8
Delaware	.8	.4	1.3	.3	.3	1.8	1.1	.7	1.8
District of Columbia	.8	1.3	.7	.6		1.4	1.6	1.3	3.5
Florida	.2		.2	.2		.5	1.1		
Georgia	.4	.4	.7	.3	.2	.9			
Illinois	.6		.7	.3	1.1	.9	.5		
Indiana	.2	.4			.3		.5		
Iowa	.1	.9				.5			
Kansas	.1	.4		.2					
Kentucky	.1			.2				.7	
Louisiana	.3		.4		.3	.9	.5		
Maine	.8	1.3	.7	1.0	.7	.4	1.1		
Maryland	12.2	13.9	10.9	4.8	7.3	29.4	16.2	22.8	40.3
Massachusetts	31.2	[3] 48.1	26.6	44.1	42.6	5.4	3.3	3.3	1.8
Michigan	.5	1.3	.4	.6	.6				
Minnesota	.1				.5				
Mississippi	(1)			.2					
Missouri	.4	.9	.7	.5	.2		.5		
Montana	.1				.2		.5		

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Geographical Sources of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, June 1940 to January 1941*—Continued

State or country	Total	Percent hired in each month							
		June	July	August	September	October	November	December	January
Nebraska	0.1		0.2	0.2					
New Hampshire	.9	1.3	.2	.5	2.1	0.4	1.1		
New Jersey	6.2		11.8	8.0	3.9	1.4	2.2	11.1	10.5
New York	4.1	2.2	3.9	2.7	3.3	6.8	7.7	6.5	8.8
North Carolina	2.7	3.9	3.3	1.9	1.8	5.0	4.3	2.0	
North Dakota	(1)		.2						
Ohio	.8	.4	1.3	.5	.3	1.8	1.1	1.3	
Oklahoma	.2		.2	.2	.3				
Oregon	(1)		.2						
Pennsylvania	11.0	6.5	15.0	10.4	8.9	5.9	10.3	24.8	10.5
Rhode Island	2.2	1.7	.9	1.6	3.9	3.2	2.2	2.6	
South Carolina	.2	.4			.2	.9		.7	
Tennessee	.4		1.1	.3	.2	.4			
Texas	.6		.4	1.3	.3	.9	.5		
Vermont	.3		.4	.2	.3	.9	.6		
Virginia	10.1	7.8	9.8	9.9	7.8	10.4	25.4	8.5	3.5
Washington	(1)				.2				
West Virginia	.5		.7	.5	.6	.9		.7	
Wisconsin	.2	.4	.2	.2	.3				
Canal Zone	.2	.4	.4	.3					
Honduras	(1)					.4			
Venezuela	(1)					.4			
Not reported	3.7	3.5	3.9	3.5	1.6	4.1	5.4	5.2	17.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.
[2] Month not available for 1 employee.

Age of Shipyard Workers

A distribution of the 2,546 skilled workers by age group (table 3), shows that more than one-fourth (28.3 percent) were under 30 years of age at the time hired. At the other extreme, there were one-fourth (24.7 percent) who were 45 years old and over. A total of 45.9 percent of all new workers were under 36 years.

TABLE 3.—*Ages of Skilled Workers Hired in Selected Atlantic Coast Shipyards, June 1940 to January 1941*

Month in which hired	Age group						
	Under 30 years	30 and under 36 years	36 and under 40 years	40 and under 45 years	45 years and over	Age not reported	All groups
June	29.8	12.1	11.3	18.2	26.0	2.6	100.0
July	27.2	18.7	11.3	16.4	24.4	2.0	100.0
August	25.0	16.5	12.0	17.3	27.4	1.8	100.0
September	33.7	16.7	10.9	14.8	23.1	.8	100.0
October	31.7	20.8	13.1	11.8	18.6	4.0	100.0
November	22.7	22.2	9.2	17.3	24.9	3.7	100.0
December	23.2	20.0	14.2	13.5	27.2	1.9	100.0
January	28.1	17.5	14.0	12.3	28.1		100.0
Total	28.3	17.6	11.6	15.8	24.7	2.0	100.0

EFFECT OF SELECTIVE SERVICE DRAFT ON COLLEGE REGISTRATIONS

LATE in the fall of 1940 the Bureau of Labor Statistics made an inquiry into the effects of the Selective Service Act on university and college registrations.

According to the reports received by the Bureau, it appears that the effects of the Selective Service Act on undergraduate enrollments for the fall semester of 1940 were negligible. The act had brought about decreases in registrations in several of the graduate schools, however. These decreases were accounted for partly by calls to service under the draft, partly by prior enlistments in the National Guard, and partly by voluntary enlistment.

Further decreases were anticipated for the second semester of the academic year 1940–41, and a marked decrease was expected for the fall semester of 1941. It was not thought that these anticipated declines in future registrations would affect the various schools in equal measure. For example, virtually no decreases were expected in either undergraduate or graduate enrollments in medical schools. In all other schools the impact of the draft upon graduate students was expected to be great, as they necessarily include the older students who come within the age limits of the Selective Service Act.

Shifts in enrollments were already appearing in the fall of 1940, as evidenced by notable increases in registrations for courses in agriculture, chemical engineering, mechanical engineering, and science. Among these courses the greatest relative increases occurred in engineering. It is reasonable to assume that these shifts reflect primarily the anticipated increase in job opportunities arising from the national defense program. Some transfers of students to schools where military training is available and runs concurrently with the students' academic work were also noted.

Apprehension as to the ultimate effect of the Selective Service Act upon standards of graduation was expressed by some educators. The school year for seniors may be cut short and these students graduated at a date earlier than the regular commencement exercises, enabling them to complete their year of service with the forces sooner. The primary purpose, however, would be to minimize, to some extent at least, interference with the graduates' future employment prospects. Similar privileges would necessarily have to be extended to students already in military service.

The reports indicate no major changes in the attitudes of the majority of the undergraduates toward their academic work or their future prospects. However, deep concern is evident among the senior students and graduate students, who are wondering how they will be affected by a possible change in the hiring policies of companies,

resulting from the Selective Service Act and how they will be situated as regards competition for jobs in the future.

The concern about hiring policies probably arises from the prevailing belief among seniors and graduate students that a high draft number is virtually a prerequisite to getting a job. Whether this belief is well founded is subject to question. Reports received by the Bureau indicate that in some regions employers feel that there is little use in hiring young men if they are subject to an early call for service, whereas in other regions companies are reported as having no intention of seeking selective service information from prospective candidates for employment.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN DEFENSE INDUSTRIES

THE magnitude of the national defense program and the consequent expansion of employment have led the United States Women's Bureau to examine the part which woman workers can take in the defense program. The possibilities of women's employment in the defense industries, the availability of trained woman workers for defense employment, the opportunities for training women for such employment, and related phases of the position of women in relation to the defense program are being explored by the Bureau. Some of the information already secured is here given.[1]

Possibilities of Employment of Women in Defense Industries

A survey of about 40 establishments having defense contracts for products on which women could be employed was made by the Women's Bureau in the fall of 1940, as a beginning of an extensive investigation. These plants, which were situated mainly in the industrial Northeast, with a few in Ohio, included machine-tool manufacture; electrical-supply plants; ammunition and firearms factories; plants fabricating iron, steel, brass, and aluminum products; and aircraft plants making engines, instruments, and parts, and assembling planes. Women were employed on many processes, it was found, but they could be employed to a much greater extent.

In airplane factories skilled all-round mechanics were most in demand. The openings for women were limited, mainly because of the oversupply of male labor and the lack of opportunities for the training of women. In some European airplane plants, it is reported, women form a large proportion of the workers, lighter tools being provided for them and the heavier lifting in assembling machines being done by electric belts.

[1] Data are from The Woman Worker published by the U. S. Women's Bureau, issues of July, September, and November 1940, and January and March 1941.

In plants making airplane engines and parts, women were inspecting small parts, cleaning metal parts, and etching identification numbers on small parts. Very small numbers of women were found in the paint shop of a body plant.

In aircraft-instrument factories most of the women were doing bench work, operating small automatic screw machines, drills, and other machines. Some women did radium painting of dials for instruments and others worked in the plating department, hanging parts on racks and removing them when the plating was finished. Women were also employed in hand polishing and finishing of parts and armature and coil winding. Small numbers of women were working in the drafting room, doing some scale drawing and tracing and acting as assistants. A few woman clerks routed orders and kept stock records. The aircraft-instrument field is a relatively new and growing one, and the training and employment of women could be expanded.

Women have long been employed in electrical-product plants, generally on light assembly and inspection work and in winding coils and armatures. When defense contracts are in full swing it is expected that women will be tried out in new jobs and employed more extensively as machine operators and as inspectors. They could be employed not only on light machines and on drill presses but even on some of the heavier assembly jobs in which the work is not too strenuous for them.

In the machine-tool factories women were working as bench workers, inspectors, light-machine operators, coil winders and wrappers, and packers. In one establishment, overhead cranes were being driven and controlled by women, who had proved to be more efficient than men.

In the shell divisions of gun and ammunition plants women were employed in various capacities. Most of them were inspectors and tenders of drawing machines. Others, however, assembled some types of shells, sprayed guns with lacquer, operated punch presses, made time fuses, etc.

Women employed in a miscellaneous group of metal and electrical-supply plants visited were successfully operating drill, punch, and riveting presses and various types of small specialized machines, and doing a variety of bench-work operations. Woman inspectors were numerous and there were a few drafting assistants and production clerks.

In 10 new munitions plants now being constructed for the Federal Government, the Women's Bureau reports that half of the labor force is expected to be women. These plants, which will make powder and high explosives, load bags, and load shells, are being constructed in small communities because of the dangerous character of the work, and will draw workers from the nearby cities, towns, and farms. In

smokeless-powder plants women may work as routine analysts in the laboratories under experienced chemists, as temperature readers in the powder-drying rooms, as operators of presses and cutting machines, and as inspectors of powder in the finishing rooms. In the loading of shells with powder and high explosives, women may be employed in numerous operations.

Women Available for Defense Work

The number of women immediately available for defense work has been estimated as probably not far from 2 million, this preliminary estimate being based on the number of women actively seeking jobs through the public employment services and women on the WPA rolls. In addition, an estimated half million women who have only partial employment could be utilized for further employment.

Among the women registering at employment agencies for industrial jobs probably well over a quarter of a million are skilled workers, according to a preliminary report of the Bureau of Employment Security. Those who possessed skills especially important in the defense program included the following: Electrical machinery, 17,600; other machinery, 6,700; metals and metal products, 14,000; chemicals, 9,000; automobiles and their equipment, 6,700.

In addition to the munitions industries, the production of wearing apparel and food are vital to the defense program. Many thousands of the women applying for jobs were experienced in these industries, viz: Apparel and other articles made from finished fabrics, 92,000; textile-mill products, 86,000; food and kindred products, 62,000; leather and leather products, 24,000. The following groups of woman job seekers having experience in other services will be available if the men are withdrawn from civilian services: Medical and other services, 14,000; telephone, telegraph, and related services, 11,000; regular government agencies, 13,000; service industries, 281,000; trade, 244,000; finance, insurance, and real estate, 21,400.

Training of Women for Defense Industries

In an expanded defense program women will need training in manufacturing processes for which, though new to them, they are peculiarly adapted. They have a special facility for bench work, using small tools, and sorting and assembling small parts, for exact inspections, and in all finer types of work. Few women have been trained, for example, for inspections requiring measurements to thousandths of an inch. For such inspections workers need a knowledge of how to read blueprints and of some shop mathematics. In general, women have not been trained in shop practices, and have not acquired the skills which can be developed only on the job.

Women have been included only to a limited extent in the special defense training program operated by the Office of Education through local vocational facilities. Certain elemental basic training, including the use of hand tools, is being developed by the NYA courses, and some WPA projects prepare for defense needs as to textiles and clothing.

The inclusion of women in suitable numbers in the selections for training was urged at a joint session of the Women's Bureau Advisory Committees held in November 1940. The committees include representatives of labor groups directly connected with the defense program and representatives of women's organizations who seek more effective methods to secure further training and employment opportunities for women in their communities. Work for which women should be trained include, it is claimed, the interpretation of shop blueprints, the reading of scales, micrometers, calipers, and other gages; and a knowledge of metals and their hardness, of the speeds and feeds of cutting tools, of shop mathematics, and of shop routine and practice. Among types of jobs that trained women can perform are—

The operation of punch presses and such machines as single, multiple, and radial drills; light lathes and chucking machines; boring, reaming, tapping, threading, grinding, and buffing machines; milling machines.

Assembly and bench work, as for example on airplane instruments and small electric motors, which may require use of mechanical screwdrivers and hand tools, spot welding, soldering, cleaning with compressed air, burring, filing, operating arbor or rivet presses.

Inspecting small parts, which often requires reading blueprints and mechanical drawings, use of precision gages, calipers, scales, and other measuring tools.

Armature, stator, and coil winding.

Acetylene and electric welding.

Optical lens grinding, polishing, blocking, cementing, inspecting.

Stamping small parts from light sheet metal (duralumin).

Grinding and cleaning of tools.

Clerical or routing operations requiring knowledge of factory procedures, terminology as to jobs, tools, machines, processes; for example, giving out tools, recording and checking tool supplies. Assistants in drafting rooms, which requires somewhat longer training.

Health services, such as ward helpers in hospitals; laboratory assistants; nursing aides in homes; physiotherapists' aides; health clinic assistants; dental assistants; occupational therapists.

Food preparation and servicing; for example, at camp service clubs, hospitals, expanding factories.

Radio receiving and transmission; for example, ground service in airplane dispatching.

Standards for Employment of Women in Defense Work

The maintenance of labor standards is especially important as regards women's work in the defense program, as, in the main, woman workers are the most seriously affected by lowered standards. With

the Government machinery now in existence for safeguarding workers, and the large numbers of skilled woman workers available for defense employment, there is no necessity for lowering standards as to minimum wages, shorter hours, safety, and other labor safeguards.

The United States Women's Bureau, in cooperation with the Labor Advisory Committee on Standards for the Employment of Women in the Defense Program, representing eight large union groups, has prepared a report on general standards for such employment of women,[2] a summary of which was published in the September 1940 issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 564).

PRESIDENT'S APPEAL FOR HIRING OF OLDER WORKERS

MAY 4 was designated by the President as National Employment Sunday and the week beginning with that day as National Employment Week, in a proclamation of April 3, 1941. The proclamation points out that, notwithstanding the enormous numbers of placements resulting from the defense program, numerous older workers with excellent abilities and skills are still in the ranks of the unemployed, and calls upon employers and other citizens to give special attention to the employment of these persons.

The proclamation reads as follows:[3]

> Despite great expansions in employment resulting directly and indirectly from our vast National Defense Program, the State and Federal Governments continue to be concerned with the problems of older workers, many of whom still lack a place in industry. Among these are a considerable number of World War veterans, men who now average 48 years of age, and who, I feel, have a special appeal to our national sense of responsibility particularly during this time of national-defense preparation.
>
> The United States Employment Service—a Nation-wide network of 1,500 offices operated jointly by the State and Federal Governments—has made special efforts in behalf of workers past 40 years of age, including veterans. In the interest of utilizing all possible skills in our defense program, I urge that employers review carefully their standards of physical qualifications to assure that these valuable workers are not barred from employment. We know from available facts that men and women in middle life possess abilities and skills which fit them for employment in nearly every line of work and that they have a definite contribution to make at this time of increasing shortages of experienced workers. It is important in our national-defense effort that we fully and effectively use the available manpower of the Nation.
>
> A year ago I designated a National Employment Week during which I asked that all our citizens give particular and active attention to the problem of older

[2] U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Effective Industrial Use of Women in the Defense Program. Washington, 1940. (Special Bulletin No. 1.)

[3] Federal Register (Washington), April 5, 1941.

workers who lack employment. The concerted efforts of government, many public-spirited groups, and particularly of employers throughout the land, resulted in the employment of thousands of workers past 40, among them many veterans.

I am grateful for the whole-hearted response to that appeal; and as President, I desire to encourage a continued Nation-wide interest in this persistent problem.

Now, therefore, I, Franklin D. Roosevelt, President of the United States of America, do hereby declare the week beginning May 4, 1941, as National Employment Week, and Sunday May 4, 1941, as National Employment Sunday. I urge all churches, civic organizations, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, veterans' organizations, industry, labor, public-spirited citizens, radio, and the press throughout the United States to observe that week as National Employment Week, to the end that interest in the welfare of all those not now working, and especially the worker over 40, may be stimulated and employment be extended to them.

Foreign Wartime Policies

PROGRESS OF CANADIAN EMERGENCY TRAINING PROGRAM

THE total number of persons afforded training in the first 2 months of 1941 under the recently expanded Dominion War Emergency Program was 15,758. Of these trainees, 9,277 were in industrial classes; 2,490 in special classes for Army mechanics and tradesmen; 1,259 in youth training classes connected with war production; and 2,732 in Royal Canadian Air Force classes under the Youth Training Program.[1]

The number of trainees from industrial classes who were placed in employment totaled 1,702.

The objective of the program for 1941 is to graduate 50,000 trainees from vocational schools and an equal number from plant schools in order to provide an adequate supply of skilled labor in war production plants. It was estimated that if 20,000 of this total were assigned to the armed forces, 80,000 would be available to meet industrial requirements. As in Great Britain and the United States the process of "up-grading" semiskilled workers was recommended for plants. By this process jobs are "broken down," the trained mechanics devoting their time to the most skilled part of the operation, with the rest of the work being divided among others next to the mechanics. New employees are taken on at the bottom on the least skilled jobs and moved up as rapidly as circumstances permit.

Candidates for training schools are reported to be applying in satisfactory numbers, and it is estimated that in June 1941 an additional 100,000 young persons will graduate from secondary schools, who will constitute an additional reserve.

The existing machinery of the youth training scheme in the Department of Labor is being used for the administration of the industrial training program, which program also includes the use of the vocational shops in technical schools and the special industrial training centers operated during the past 4 years.

Under the industrial training scheme, the greater number of these schools and centers are to have two shifts per day and some will have three. Several thousand persons have applied for admission to the next classes to be constituted. Men over 40 or discharged soldiers from the last or present war are given preference, provided the training will benefit them and they can do the required work. The usual

[1] Canada. Department of Labor. Labor Gazette (Ottawa), March 1941.

training period is approximately 3 months, but longer courses can be taken for special occupations, for example, toolroom improvers, radio mechanics, and instrument repairers. The majority of the trainees are in classes for aircraft manufacture, welding, sheet-metal work, and machine shop and fitting. Adequate classroom instruction in related subjects is given so that the trainee may perform intelligently the work for which he or she is being trained. Instruction in industrial English is being given to French-speaking trainees in the Province of Quebec.

Every effort is made to have trainees sponsored by a future employer and training is given them to meet his requirements. The number of women admitted to classes has been limited up to the present, and is confined largely to sponsored groups. One reason for this is that the majority of occupations in which women are used require very little previous training, and such can best be given in the industry itself.

CANADIAN MAYORS ON WARTIME HOUSING

THE great majority of Canadian municipalities are confronted with a housing problem arising from war demands upon industrial production, according to a recent report issued by the Canadian Federation of Mayors and Municipalities.[1]

The following plan for meeting the housing problem now, and to some extent after the war, is proposed in this publication.

1. Large-scale housing requires large-scale capital. In this regard it is suggested that the major portion of the housing required could be financed through the National Housing Act.

2. The special housing required in communities where there are Government-owned war industries will require a special Federal organization. It is suggested that while the Housing Act Branch of the Department of Finance might undertake such a responsibility, "there is much to be said for the setting up of a quite distinct and separate organization." Such a Federal Housing Authority, it is suggested, should be a legally constituted body, with wide powers to permit it freedom and rapidity of action.

3. Appointment of regional or local housing boards in different parts of the country to survey the housing needs of their locality, to act as agents for the Federal Housing Authority, to be responsible for erection and management of projects in their area, and at the termination of the war to be responsible for the salvage, transfer, or final disposition of temporary housing.

4. Nation-wide survey required to determine war-housing conditions and needs throughout the Dominion.

Although the major objective of such a housing authority would be the assumption of responsibility and appropriate action in connection with special war housing problems, it is suggested in the report that it might be found advisable to continue the recommended agency in anticipation of the housing program for the post-war period, which will probably be more colossal than the one resulting from the existing emergency.

[1] Canadian Federation of Mayors and Municipalities. The Wartime Housing Problem. Montreal, 1941.

WORKING CONDITIONS IN BRITISH ARMAMENT PRODUCTION

IN THE third report of the Select Committee on National Expenditures for the session 1940–41, the effects of British labor policy on the costs and flow of armament production are discussed and recommendations are made for more effective use of the labor supply.[1] The recommendations contained in this report are given in full below and the discussion on the more important points is summarized. As this Committee was appointed to examine current public war expenditures, the labor problem has been faced from the beginning. The Subcommittee on Supply Services formulated the recommendations adopted by the Committee.

The text of these recommendations is as follows:

The Minister of Labor should where necessary make greater use of his compulsory powers for the movement of workers from place to place in those cases where production is hampered by lack of suitable labor.

The hours of work should be reduced to those set out in the Ministry of Labor's July circular as soon as possible. It is also essential that any reduction should be universally applied, in order to prevent men moving from place to place in search of overtime rates. The three-shift system is the ideal to be aimed at in every possible case.

The "spotter" system should be linked up with the Observer Corps and the removal or wiring of glass in the roofs of workshops should be speeded up.

The interior lighting of factories and workshops should be the subject of full and urgent investigation, as eyestrain is one of the major causes of industrial fatigue.

The problem of the lack of skilled labor should be met by the maximum amount of dilution and the training of labor. It is particularly desirable that more training should be done in the factories themselves, in addition to the training centers set up by the Ministry of Labor.

More attention should be paid by the costings department to labor costs, and action taken when they appear to be too high.

The costings department should be empowered to take out current costings, making use of the firm's own costing system wherever possible, and those officers responsible for placing further contracts should have the duty of examining these figures. It is only thus that any effective check can be made on the cost of a contract, the present system of post-costing being too much delayed to be of any real use.

Contracts should be placed on a fixed price basis wherever possible, and the fact that a contract is placed with a firm doing work for another department should not prevent the Ministry of Supply settling their own terms.

Every effort should be made to prevent any break in production. The supply departments should be able to make up their minds at an earlier date as to the eventual numbers of particular articles which they will require.

Continual watch should be kept by the contracts department on the unnecessary use of paper in sending out tenders and drawing up contracts.

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[1] Great Britain. Parliament. Third Report from the Select Committee on National Expenditure, Session 1940–41. London, 1941.

The Labor Problem

In the early stages of the present war, production was disturbed, owing to the movement of engineering personnel from job to job. The orders banning advertisement for labor, issued under the Emergency Powers (Defense) Act of 1940, appear to have stopped this practice. All applications for workers are now made through local labor exchanges, and the Minister of Labor may move labor from place to place at his discretion. This has had an unexpected result which is recognized by the Government departments and employers: There is now a standstill of labor, particularly of skilled men. The apparent reason is that the Ministry of Labor uses its compulsory powers only to a small extent. Compulsion is resorted to only if positively necessary. The subcommittee's opinion is that "undue delicacy in this matter should not be allowed to cause unnecessary and harmful delay in getting maximum production."

Overtime

Comparisons are made between the last and the present war to show the harmful effects of excessive overtime hours of work. As early as 1894 a reduction of the workweek to 48 hours in Royal ordnance factories and dockyards resulted in an improvement in attendance and timekeeping, with no loss of production or increase in cost. The Committee on the Health of Munition Workers, created in 1915 under the auspices of the Ministry of Munitions with the approval of the Home Office, made recommendations which are directly applicable now. For example, discontinuance of Sunday work was favored except in special emergencies, including making up work, maintenance, and repairs. Maximum hours, including overtime, of 65 to 67 for men and 60 for women were favored. (A later recommendation made in 1917 was for a week of 63 hours.) Adoption of the three-shift system was urged whenever labor was available, and the importance of rest periods was emphasized.

These recommendations were made in January 1916 but it was not possible to shorten working time to any great extent until the end of 1917 and in 1918. The results were favorable; health and timekeeping improved without any loss in output. Analysis of the results showed that reduction of working time, even by 18 or 20 hours a week, increased net output. Research shows that the symptoms of fatigue are not limited to low output, although this is the essential measure of fatigue. Other manifestations are absenteeism, bad timekeeping, and rises in sickness and accident rates. These symptoms appeared in the last war, and the subcommittee has evidence to show they already exist in this war. The report here reviewed states: "The difficulties as set out in the history of the Ministry of Munitions are almost identical

* * * and the lessons which the last war should have taught seem largely to have been ignored."

Before the drive for extra production began, in May 1940, the subcommittee was concerned regarding the amount of overtime worked. In December 1939 the average overtime of engineers was about 12 hours a week, the range being from 5½ hours in one factory to 22 hours in another. However, while the unions, employers, and the Government factories were agreed that industrial fatigue was setting in, there were cases in which employees left factories (if a certain amount of overtime was not worked) to obtain employment where they could earn more by working overtime.

After the invasion of Belgium and the Netherlands the Government appealed for extra work, and factories operated 24 hours a day and 7 days a week. Holidays were canceled. The response was striking and more work was done per hour than previously. After 2 months of extreme effort the expected symptoms of fatigue began to appear. To cite one example, absenteeism in Royal ordnance factories alone rose from 10 to 15 percent. It was then decided to cut down week-end work, with favorable results.

Realizing that excessive hours are undesirable physically and economically, the Ministry of Labor issued a schedule in July 1940 for the reduction of individual working hours. It was compiled after consultation with employer and employee organizations and the production departments of the British Government. This document stresses the vital importance of maintaining war production at the maximum and at the same time relieving strain on workers from long and continuous labor. An immediate reduction of hours to an average of 60 was recommended, with the aim of a 55- or 56-hour week (the optimum standard) as soon as the necessary labor could be acquired. It was also stated that the rules of the Factory Acts on hours of women and young persons would be applied again on August 1, 1940. It is these provisions on hours that the subcommittee endorses in its recommendations shown above. At the same time the ultimate aim is 3-shift operation wherever possible.

Four general conclusions are reached. (1) Increased hours of work above an optimum (which varies slightly with different industries) do not increase output proportionately and may even result in a decrease. (2) When heavy overtime is worked for prolonged periods the general health of workers is undermined. (3) If overtime has been prolonged, a reduction in hours will increase output, though there will be a time lag corresponding to recuperation of energy. (4) If general health is undermined a reduction to optimum hours will fail to effect the required increase of output.

Immediate reduction of hours is urged before the health of munition workers is seriously affected, as happened in the last war.

Other Working Conditions

This report was based on conditions before intensive air raiding of the country began. However, the subcommittee even then had evidence that "the system of air-raid warnings is not entirely satisfactory," and that the "spotter system" might be still further improved by better organization. The facts also show clearly that fatigue might be alleviated by proper attention to lighting and ventilation. The expense of improving existing lighting would be trifling in relation to the benefits in the majority of cases.

Dilution and Training

Labor shortages, especially of skilled workers, present the main obstacle to reducing overtime. The remedies are dilution and training. An agreement for dilution was reached by employers and the unions at the beginning of the war. Progress under it has been slow, as so many safeguards were introduced. Employers having skilled men were unwilling to lose them. The unions, remembering the state of the engineering industry after the last war, were not anxious to have their ranks swelled by an influx of men. There has been also the problem of skilled men doing semiskilled work, on piece rates, because they could earn more.

The subcommittee notes an improvement and an increasing movement toward a graded system of dilution. More women are being taken on, but the subcommittee thinks that there should be a continued drive toward maximum dilution. This would involve a system of grading engineers into categories according to skill and qualifications. Employers are apt to object, on the ground that they have too great a scaling down of standards and too few skilled workers already. But even though there are too few skilled workers in some factories, there may be too many in others. The subcommittee urges, therefore, that the compulsory powers to move labor should be used fearlessly, if necessary.

Training is closely bound with the problem of dilution. There is no time for elaborate systems. The subcommittee expresses satisfaction that this is realized and that useful work is being done by the technical colleges under the Board of Education. It is stated, however, that undoubtedly the best way of training unskilled labor is in the factories and workshops. Finally, all types of training should be expanded.

Costs

The labor problem is important to the subcommittee, as its primary duty is to investigate expenditures arising out of the war, and labor is one of the large items of Government expenditure. This body is not

concerned with basic wage rates, which are regulated by collective agreement. It is concerned with total earnings of workers each week, when they are inconsistent with earnings envisaged in such agreements. Overtime pay is the most important normal factor increasing total wages. When overtime and other extra payments raise costs without achieving a corresponding expansion in production, it becomes a concern of the subcommittee.

With the knowledge that overtime increased costs unduly in the last war, the subcommittee is of the opinion that rises in costs should not this time have been permitted to occur. It has been difficult to obtain any figures on costs, but the subcommittee believes they have risen disproportionately. For example, one firm produced shells with a labor cost of about 1s. 5d. per shell, whereas another had a cost of 5s. 1d. per shell. An explanation was that one firm was able to employ less highly skilled labor which the other could not obtain. The subcommittee intends to pursue inquiries into such discrepancies. The letting of contracts on a cost plus basis, where practiced, provides a temptation to employers to offer unjustifiable inducements to personnel, often to the detriment of national production. The 100-percent excess-profits tax also removes a great inducement to hold costs down. Under this tax, any expenditure, even if wasteful, becomes an expenditure of funds that would otherwise go to the Treasury.

ITALIAN LABOR UNDER WAR CONDITIONS [1]

THE current labor shortage in Italy is being increasingly felt in numerous branches of civilian industry, as well as among artisans, tradespeople, and miscellaneous manual workers, notwithstanding the fact that the per capita production of those employed has been materially increased by the war labor schedule which has been operating in Italy in recent months.

The principal legislative measure which placed Italian industry on a war basis was taken by virtue of the special powers granted to the Minister of Corporations, by an act of July 16, 1940. Under its provisions the Minister was empowered to authorize the Inspectorate of Corporations to exempt employers from observance of the following labor restrictions imposed by various laws which had been in force since 1923, 1934, and 1937:

1. Night work of women and children, except children under 16, as far as compatible with safety and hygiene.

2. The 10-percent limit on employment of female employees in public and private offices.

[1] Data are from reports from John L. Goshie, United States vice consul, Rome; and Raymond Hall, clerk of United States consulate, Milan.

3. The Saturday half-holiday.
4. The weekly day of rest.
5. The 40-hour week.
6. The 12-hour weekly limit on overtime.

Increased Working Hours

According to reports in Italian newspapers, the Ministry of Corporations early in 1941 ordered the formation of special industrial committees to propose schemes for increasing working hours. A committee was to be appointed for each Province of Italy, consisting of a corporative inspector, a delegate of the Undersecretariat for War Manufactures, and one representative each from the Workers' Union and the Industrialists' Union.

Each committee was to examine, within its own Province, the condition of each individual industrial plant, and to advise the provincial office of the Corporative Inspectorate of its findings, the inspectorate in turn (subject to ministerial instructions) to order necessary changes in the operating schedule of the plant. The work of these committees was to be completed by the middle of March.

It was reported that up to the end of February, only the problem of increasing working hours in the mechanical and metallurgical (especially iron and steel) industries had been taken into consideration. Reports indicated that two basic norms had been established for changing working hours in these industries, namely: (1) For continuous operations and for plants working 24 hours a day, two 12-hour shifts, each working 72 hours a week (instead of three 8-hour shifts per day, as formerly); (2) for plants working less than 24 hours per day, a working schedule of 10 hours per day and 60 hours per week.

It was stated that the working hours in these industries were being increased in order to release a corresponding number of Italian wage earners for transfer to Germany. According to report, the German authorities had requested not less than 50,000 skilled wage earners, and wage contracts had already been prepared.

Although industrial committees had reported for only the two industries noted above, full use had been made of the relaxation of legislative restrictions. As a result, laborers and many classes of office and store employees are reported to be working on the basis of a 48-hour week, with considerable overtime in certain establishments, especially those engaged on war contracts, while half holidays and Sunday rest have been suspended in numerous plants.

Extra Food Rations

Additional food rations for wage earners performing heavy work were authorized by order of the Italian Ministry of Agriculture.

The extra rations are: For the southern Provinces (including Latium), 600 grams (about 21 ounces) of alimentary paste; and for the central Provinces and North Italy, 300 grams (about 10.5 ounces) of alimentary paste and 300 grams of rice.

According to newspaper reports, the authorities having jurisdiction have promised to distribute these additional rations as soon as it has been ascertained which classes of workers are entitled to receive them.

The regular rations of alimentary paste and rice total 2 kilograms (about 4.4 pounds) per person per month.

WORKING AGREEMENT FOR WEST COAST SHIPBUILDING INDUSTRY

EARLY in April an agreement was reached establishing zone standards of working conditions in the entire Pacific coast shipbuilding industry. This was the result of a conference of representatives of the shipbuilders and of organized labor, held in San Francisco in February, sponsored by the Shipbuilding Stabilization Committee of the National Defense Advisory Commission. The agreement, which was voluntary and in the interest of national defense, was approved on April 11 by the United States Navy, the United States Maritime Commission, and the Office of Production Management, and was ratified by the employing firms and labor organizations on the Pacific coast and their affiliates on April 21.

The principal features of the agreement are: (1) A basic hourly wage rate of $1.12 for skilled mechanics; (2) an 8-hour day and 40-hour week (Monday to Friday unless local conditions require other arrangement) with time and one-half pay for work on Saturdays (since intent is 6 days of operation per week) and double pay for overtime on Sundays and holidays; (3) shift work on a specified schedule; (4) prohibition of strikes and lock-outs; (5) provision against limitation of production; (6) machinery for settling disputes; (7) continuation of the agreement for the duration of the national emergency or 2 years, whichever is longer, with provision for review and adjustment of wage scales; and (8) apprentice training.

The full agreement follows:

A. *Basic wage rate of standard skilled mechanics.*—The basic wage rate of all skilled mechanics on the Pacific coast engaged in the construction of new vessels in the defense program during the period of national emergency as proclaimed by the President of the United States shall be $1.12 per hour; provided, however, that this shall not operate to reduce the wages of any employee who is now, or who has within 6 months been, employed by any Pacific coast shipbuilding firm; and provided further, that any employee who is transferred from ship repair to new ship construction by any Pacific coast employer shall receive not less than the wages now being paid by his employer to other employees in the same classification in new ship construction. The wage scale so established is to be considered as a minimum scale and shall not prevent the payment of higher wages to premium men.

B. *Overtime provision.*—Forty (40) hours shall constitute a workweek, eight (8) hours per day, five (5) days per week, Monday to Friday, inclusive, between

the hours of 8 a. m. and 5 p. m., unless local conditions require the establishment of other hours, which may be done by mutual consent of employers and employees. Overtime at the rate of one and one-half times the established hourly rate shall be paid for all work performed in excess of eight (8) hours per day and forty (40) hours per week. Since this agreement is based on the intent of 6-day-per-week operation, all work performed on Saturdays shall be paid for at one and one-half times the established hourly rate. Overtime at double the established rate shall be paid for all work performed on Sundays and holidays. These provisions relative to overtime payment and for Saturday work shall be effective only during the period of the national emergency; provided, however, that this establishment of this emergency rate shall not be used as a subterfuge to defeat the double-time provisions for Saturday work which would be in effect were it not for the national emergency.

The provision for time and one-half for overtime on Saturdays established for the duration of the national emergency shall automatically terminate whenever the President of the United States shall proclaim that such national emergency no longer exists; thereafter, all overtime shall be computed on a double-time basis.

C. *Shift premiums.*—Shift work will be permitted in all classifications without restriction on the following basis:

(*a*) The regular starting time of the day shift shall be 8 a. m., except that where, as to any locality or as to any plant of any employer, existing traffic conditions render it desirable to start the day shift at an earlier hour, such starting time may, with the agreement of the employer and employees, be made earlier, but in no event earlier than 7 a. m.

(*b*) The regular established starting time of the day shift shall be recognized as the beginning of the 24-hour workday period.

(*c*) First or regular daylight shift: An 8½-hour period less 30 minutes for meals on the employee's time. Pay for a full shift period shall be a sum equivalent to 8 times the regular hourly rate with no premium.

Second shift: An 8-hour period less 30 minutes for meals on employee's time. Pay for a full second shift period shall be a sum equivalent to 8 times the regular hourly rate plus 10 percent.

Third shift: A 7½-hour period less 30 minutes for meals on employee's time. Pay for a full third shift period shall be a sum equivalent to eight times the regular hourly rate plus 15 percent.

(*d*) For work on any shift less than the full shift period, pay shall be the corresponding proportionate part of the pay for the full shift period, *provided* such amount be not less than the minimum pay otherwise provided for in the supplementary agreements.

D. *No strike or lock-out clause.*—There shall be no lock-outs on the part of the employer nor suspension of work on the part of the employees. This agreement is a guaranty that there will be neither strikes nor lock-outs and that all disputes will be settled by arbitration as hereinafter provided.

E. *Provision against limitation on production.*—There shall be no limit on, or curtailment of, production.

F. *Grievance machinery and arbitration.*—All grievances or complaints shall be promptly settled between representatives of the employer and employees. Where necessary, the services of the United States Conciliation Service, Department of Labor, shall be speedily secured. Should no agreement be reached, the dispute shall be submitted to arbitration. Definite arbitration machinery shall be established by supplemental agreements. The decision of the arbiters shall be within the scope and terms of the agreement, shall not change any of its terms, and shall

be final and binding on the parties. The arbiters shall determine whether or not the decision is retroactive and the effective date thereof.

G. *Duration of agreement.*—All provisions of this agreement shall continue in force and effect during the period of the national emergency, as proclaimed by the President of the United States, and/or the period of 2 years, whichever is the longer, and shall continue in force and effect thereafter from year to year unless either party shall desire a change and shall give the other party notice in writing of the proposed changes at least 30 days prior to the expiration of any year; provided, however, that on demand of labor at the end of the first year's operations under this agreement, and on demand of either party, every 6 months thereafter, the wage scales herein agreed to shall be reviewed by the parties. If the cost of living, as shown in the "Index Numbers of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Salaried Workers in Large Cities," published by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, shall have changed at the time of the review from the cost of living at the time of the making of this agreement by 5 percent or more, the wage scales shall be correspondingly adjusted.

In the event the necessary data are not obtainable at the date of review, they may be secured at a later date and the wage adjustment shall be made effective retroactively to the date of review.

H. *Apprentice-training program.*—In order that an adequate supply of competent skilled craftsmen shall be available at all times, it is agreed between the parties hereto that an apprenticeship training program may be established by the employer, which program shall be mutually acceptable to the parties hereto. Nothing contained herein shall conflict with Federal or State apprenticeship laws.

PROVISION FOR MANAGEMENT EFFICIENCY IN DRESS-INDUSTRY AGREEMENTS

THE manufacture of women's dresses is highly centralized in the New York metropolitan area, which includes an estimated 80 percent of the Nation's total production. In this area the industry is highly organized. The employees are members of various locals of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, which are coordinated for bargaining purposes through the Joint Board of the Dress and Waistmakers' Union of Greater New York.

The dress manufacturers likewise deal collectively, through five associations representing the various types of shops. Thus there are separate organizations for the inside manufacturers and jobbers, and the contractors who manufacture for jobbers.

The jobbers and manufacturers are organized as the Affiliated Dress Manufacturers, Inc., the National Dress Manufacturers Ass'n, Inc., and the Popular Priced Dress Manufacturers Group, Inc., this last including only those who handle dresses which sell at wholesale for $4.75 or less. The contractors are represented by the United Better Dress Manufacturers Ass'n, Inc., and the United Popular Dress Manufacturers Ass'n, Inc., the latter covering those handling dresses wholesaling at $4.75 and below. Although each of these associations signs separately with the union, uniformity is maintained

through joint negotiations and almost identical provisions in the agreements.

The dress agreements for 1941 cover some 2,100 employers (jobbers, inside manufacturers, and contractors) and 85,000 workers. These agreements were signed in February 1941 and extend for 3 years. The following is a summary of the outstanding features of the agreements.

Management Efficiency

During 1940 the union hired industrial engineers who made a study of dress production and concluded that there was much waste and inefficiency in the industry. As a result of this study, the union proposed and obtained a number of provisions designed to raise the level of efficiency.

The agreements provide that each association member "shall operate his shop at all times in an efficient and well-ordered manner." To improve the poor working conditions which have lowered efficiency in many shops, it is provided that shops are to be kept clean, properly lighted, and ventilated, and that adequate working space be provided for all workers. In addition, the union's study found that workers frequently had to stop work for lack of thread or other supplies. Since the workers are mostly paid on a piece-rate basis, these interruptions lowered earnings. To correct this situation, the agreements provide that there is to be a sufficient amount of supervision and adequate floor service to insure an uninterrupted flow of work.

To obtain compliance with these requirements, it is provided that the union and association shall draw up rules and regulations governing management efficiency. In case the union and association fail to agree, the matter is to be referred to the impartial chairman, who is given the authority to promulgate such rules and regulations.

Provision is also made in the agreements for the establishment of a special department to be attached to the office of the impartial chairman, and $50,000 is set aside to cover the expenses involved. The function of this department is to advise employers on ways of attaining the standards of efficiency set forth in the agreement.

Sales Promotion

The union also made a study of the promotional possibilities of the New York dress market in order to bring greater continuity of employment and increased annual earnings to the workers. Its proposal was designed to stimulate dress sales and to establish New York as "the style center of the world."

The promotion campaign is to be conducted by a board composed of an equal number of representatives of the three associations of jobbers and manufacturers, together with the union representatives.

To defray the cost of the promotion program, $1,000,000 is to be raised annually through the sale to the three associations of a label to be adopted by the board. The board is given the authority to determine the amount to be paid by each association member, dependent upon the annual volume of business and price range of garments manufactured. The contractors' associations have agreed that the label shall be attached to all garments manufactured in contract shops.

In addition to the $1,000,000 to be raised from the sale of labels, the board established by the agreement is to "make an effort to raise an additional sum of $500,000 annually from others having an interest in the welfare of the dress industry in New York." These include retailers, textile firms, producers of accessories, and real estate and banking interests. The union also has offered $100,000 to the promotion drive on condition that the union label be featured.

Hours of Work and Overtime

Previous agreements set a 5-day, 35-hour week, with a 7-hour daily maximum. There could be only one shift a day and all overtime, except for samplemakers, was expressly prohibited. The new dress agreements permit a 40-hour week under certain circumstances.

During the busy season all workers except the cutters may work not more than one additional hour per day during the first five days of the week, provided certain specified conditions are fulfilled. The employer's shops must have at least a full week's supply of work and, if additional workers are available, there must be no unused accommodations in the shops. The employer must notify the union in writing of the period during which overtime will be worked. Week workers receive time and a half for the hours worked beyond 7 a day or 35 a week, but the piece-rate workers—the greater proportion of the force—are to work these additional hours at their regular piece rates.

Setting of Piece Rates

Piece rates in the dress industry vary with each style of garment, and the rate structure is consequently very complicated. With many problems leading to severe competition and cutthroat bidding, the 1936 agreements established rate-settlement machinery to stabilize costs. This system is continued in the present agreements. Uniform piece rates are determined for the jobber and his contractors by direct settlement between the jobber and the union. The jobber settles with his contractors for a reasonable additional amount to be paid them for overhead and profits. Provision is made for the reference of unsettled rates to the impartial chairman, who maintains a technical staff to assist in the adjustment of the rate schedules.

Impartial Chairman

The agreements in the New York dress industry provide for the continuance of the office of impartial chairman. The impartial chairman has broad powers to administer the agreements and to settle controversies which may arise. In the current agreements, as in the preceding ones, he is the final authority for enforcement and can assess damages for violations of agreement provisions. In the new agreements the duties of the impartial chairman are enlarged to cover the important provisions dealing with management efficiency.

SENIORITY PROVISIONS IN UNION AGREEMENTS [1]

SENIORITY is the principle of granting employees preference in certain phases of employment in accordance with length of service. The principal aim of a seniority program is to afford the maximum security and reward to those who have rendered longest service. Also, a definitely established seniority program provides an objective standard of selection, thus eliminating favoritism and discrimination in various phases of the employment relation.

Seniority early became a major issue among the skilled workers on the railroads, where employment tenure was broken up by frequent transfers and lay-offs caused by consolidation and technological improvements. To overcome complaints of favoritism and discrimination, one of the first demands of the unions, after collective bargaining was established, was the institution of a system of straight seniority in transfer, lay-off, and promotion. The printing-trades unions also were among the first to urge the recognition of seniority, and "priority rights" were adopted whenever the unions became strongly established. One effect of seniority in these trades was to reduce greatly the number of itinerant craftsmen.

The growth of mass-production industries and increased union organization during the last few years has made the question of seniority one of the dominant issues in industrial relations. In these industries seasonal fluctuations in production mean frequent lay-offs. Since the great majority of the jobs are semiskilled or unskilled, most of the workers can be easily replaced, thus increasing the feeling of insecurity. The emphasis on youth and speed in these industries also has tended to cause a feeling of uncertainty of tenure on the part of the older workers.

There are a few industries which, although extensively organized, are marked by an almost complete absence of seniority provisions in their union agreements. These, in general, are highly seasonal industries, such as building construction, clothing, and coal mining.

[1] Prepared in Bureau's Division of Industrial Relations.

Since such a large part of the working force is affected by slack work at one time, most unions in these industries prefer work sharing to lay-offs based on seniority. In some of these industries reliance for job protection is upon the union office or hiring hall rather than upon negotiated seniority rules with employers. The union in such cases carries out a modified seniority program by assigning new jobs to those who have been unemployed for the longest period. In some hiring halls both "regular" and "extra" lists are maintained, with employment preference given to those on the "regular" list.

Even where rotation of work or work sharing has been accepted in place of a seniority program, seniority is sometimes resorted to in special situations; for example, when there are large permanent reductions in staff resulting from technological changes or other reasons. Similarly, where rigid seniority rules for lay-offs are in effect, during a period of widespread unemployment these rules may be modified to provide for a more or less equal distribution of available work among all employees or among all employees with a specified length of service.

The application of a seniority program raises difficult questions both for the employer and the union. Some of the questions raised are: The area upon which seniority rights shall be based—whether plant, department, or occupational unit; the result of displacing junior employees who are both competent on the job and loyal union members; and the degree to which competence and ability should be considered along with seniority.

In spite of these very real problems, both employers and unions have found that the recognition of seniority has distinct advantages. It prevents discriminatory firing as well as favoritism in promotions. It reduces the number of voluntary quits, since a worker not only hesitates to lose accumulated seniority but also finds it harder to secure employment in another plant where workers have established seniority rights. Although seniority does not eliminate the hazards of unemployment during seasonal declines or cyclical depressions, a measure of job security is obtained. Since a large portion of the working force has reasonable assurance of reemployment at the end of short layoff periods, they are relieved of the necessity of seeking employment elsewhere. Employers thereby have assurance that a large proportion of their experienced workers will return as soon as business improves. Of major importance is the improved morale resulting from an orderly procedure, carefully planned in advance, and known to all concerned.

Probation Period

An employee's seniority is usually computed from the first day of his employment with an employer. Some agreements, however, require that new employees must prove their ability to perform the

duties of the job before receiving the protection of seniority. In such cases seniority rights are withheld until completion of a trial or probationary period, after which the employee receives credit on his service record for all the time he has worked. Temporary workers are sometimes denied seniority status, although they too are usually granted credit for all time worked upon becoming permanent employees.

During the probation period an employer is usually free to release the new worker without limitation by seniority rules. If the employee is retained after the probation period, however, he is assumed to have demonstrated his competence as a workman and is therefore entitled to seniority protection.

The two examples quoted below are typical of the union provisions regarding the probation period.

> All employees will be considered on a temporary or trial basis for the first —— weeks of their employment. If retained after the trial period an employee becomes a member of the regular working force, with full seniority status. Seniority status, once acquired, dates from the time of hiring.

> All employees will be considered on a temporary or trial basis for the first —— weeks of their employment in any department, whether they are new employees with the company or have transferred from another department. If retained in the department after the trial period, the employee acquires seniority status in that department, dating from the first day of the trial period.

Seniority Lists

Union agreements often contain provisions requiring that seniority lists be posted in the plant or, as an alternative, be made available to the union. In many cases, unless an alleged error in the posted seniority list is appealed within a specified period, the list as posted becomes the recognized seniority register. Many disputes over the seniority status of individual workers are thus settled in advance of the application of seniority to a specific situation.

> The employer will post on the bulletin boards lists showing the current seniority standing of each employee and will furnish the union copies of all such lists. Revised lists will be posted every —— weeks. Any appeals from the seniority list as posted must be made within —— days of the posting; otherwise, the list will be considered final.

> The seniority lists will be open to the union and the employees for inspection at any time.

Seniority Status During Periods of Nonemployment

An employee loses his seniority status under such circumstances as discharge for cause, voluntary quitting, and prolonged lay-off. Seniority can usually be retained, however, under certain circumstances during periods of nonemployment. These include lay-offs of

not more than a stated duration, absence because of illness or accident, military service and election to full-time union office.

Since a major purpose of a seniority program is to insure laid-off workers preference in reemployment when plant operations are resumed, provisions protecting the status of such employees are important parts of union-agreement seniority clauses. Commonly, 12 months is the maximum period of lay-off during which an employee retains his seniority rights. Shorter periods, such as 6 months, are provided less frequently.

Some unions have proposed the adoption of unlimited reinstatement rights after lay-off, on the ground that an employee who has worked long enough to attain seniority rights and is laid off through no fault of his own should have preference in reemployment as long as he is available. Agreements of these unions provide that an employee must signify to the employer his desire to return to work at stated intervals, such as once every 3 months. Failure to report will result in the loss of reinstatement rights, but as long as the employee is available he retains his seniority.

In many agreements an employee who does not report within a few days after being recalled to work by the employer is deemed to have forfeited his seniority status. Such a rule is flexible in operation, however, and exceptions may be made if the employee has a reasonable excuse for not reporting.

A few agreements give added protection to laid-off workers with unusually long service records. For example, senior workers with 5 or more years' service who are laid off during a severe depression may be exempted from general provisions governing loss of seniority and remain available for reemployment in accordance with their earned seniority.

A number of agreements protect the relative seniority standing of workers during short periods of lay-off by providing for the continued accrual of seniority, instead of mere retention of previously earned seniority. Under such arrangements workers temporarily off the pay roll are still considered employees of the company, and their service credit is computed from the date of hiring, without regard to intervening short-time periods of unemployment. If lay-offs and rehiring are made on the basis of strict seniority, accrual during the lay-off is not important since the relative standing of employees on the seniority roster would be the same with or without accrual. However, if exceptions are made in the application of seniority to lay-off or recall, an employee may be displaced on the roster by an employee of less service. The same displacement may occur in the case of senior employees who leave the pay roll temporarily for military service, union duties, or illness, unless interrupted employment is accumulated for seniority credit. The contrasting policies are illustrated by the following examples.

Seniority will continue to accrue during (vacation, authorized leave without pay, sickness, if not more than —— months, and the first —— months of lay-off). If laid off for more than this period, the employee will retain his seniority standing but seniority will not accrue after the first —— months of lay-off.

Seniority credit will be given only for time actually worked; time spent on vacation, leave or lay-off will not accrue for seniority purposes.

Area of Seniority Rights

COMPANY OR PLANT-WIDE SENIORITY

Under this type of seniority the status of each employee equals the total of his recognized service with the company. Transfers from job to job within the company or plant therefore have no effect on seniority standing. Plant-wide seniority gives the greatest possible security to senior employees, since preference in lay-off and recall is on the basis of total service regardless of which department or occupation is being curtailed. This type of seniority is most common in small establishments where the jobs are more or less interchangeable. It is seldom practicable in plants where it would be necessary for a worker to go through a considerable training period if he were transferred to a new job in order to replace a person with less seniority.

Each employee will have seniority standing equal to his total length of service with the employer, dating from his first day of employment by the employer.

Each employee will have seniority standing equal to his length of continuous service with the employer, dating from the day of last employment by the employer.

DEPARTMENTAL OR OCCUPATIONAL SENIORITY

In larger establishments where operations are more varied, it is common to establish separate seniority lists on departmental lines or according to occupational groupings. Although strict departmental or occupational seniority is the simplest to apply in a large establishment, it may cause dissatisfaction in certain cases. Thus, if work in one department becomes slack while others are working steadily, employees with long years of service may find themselves out of work, while junior employees in other departments are working full time. Also, transfers between departments are discouraged, since a transfer results in loss of accumulated seniority. This is alleviated in some agreements which allow a transferred employee to retain his seniority in his old department while starting as a junior employee in the new department. In case he is laid off in the new department, he can exercise seniority in his old department to displace employees with less seniority in that department.

Other agreements do not permit displacement of junior employees except in the department in which the employee is working at the time, but the employee's standing in the departmental seniority roster is

determined by his total service with the employer. This prevents the loss of seniority which would otherwise accompany a transfer from one department to another.

An employee will have a separate seniority standing in each department in which he has worked. His seniority in each department will equal the length of service in that department plus the length of previous service with the company, dating from his first day of employment by the company.

Each employee will have seniority standing equal to his total length of service with the employer, dating from his first day of employment by the employer. An employee can exercise seniority standing only in the last department in which he has worked.

Each employee will have a separate seniority standing in each department in which he has worked. His seniority in each department will equal the length of service in that department, dating from the first day of employment in the department.

COMBINED PLANT AND DEPARTMENTAL SENIORITY

In an attempt to reconcile some of the disadvantages of a strict application of either plant or departmental seniority, unions and management have negotiated various plans combining the two types of seniority. For example, employees may be promoted and transferred according to departmental seniority, but if laid off are allowed to displace junior employees anywhere in the plant who are doing similar work. Since the right is restricted to jobs for which the employee can qualify, there is no question of a long training period with its attendant effect on plant efficiency.

In some plants new employees are hired in a general-labor or entrance department and promoted to other departments as vacancies occur. Although seniority is departmentalized, employees laid off in any department may claim unskilled work in the entrance department on the basis of their plant seniority.

A type of seniority may be applied in temporary lay-offs resulting from slack work, which differs from that used in making permanent reductions in the working force. In permanent reductions, greater emphasis frequently is placed on plant or company seniority, even though seasonal lay-offs are based on departmental seniority. Since transfer in the former case is likely to be permanent, a retraining period is tolerated, which is not the case in temporary transfers during slack periods.

Each employee will have seniority standing in the plant and in the departments where he has been employed. Plant seniority will equal the employee's total length of service with the employer, dating from his first day of employment by the employer. In every department in which the employee has worked, he will have departmental seniority equal to the length of service in that department plus the length of previous service with the employer. An employee's plant seniority and his departmental seniority in the department where he is currently employed will thus be equal.

[Same as the above but substitute the following for the last two sentences:] Departmental seniority will equal the employee's total length of service in that department.

Each employee will have seniority standing in the plant and in the last department in which he has worked. Plant seniority will equal the employee's total length of service with the employer, dating from his first day of employment by the employer. Departmental seniority will equal the employee's total length of service in the last department in which he has worked.

Seniority in Lay-Offs

Many union agreements provide that lay-offs be made on the basis of strict seniority, those with the least seniority being laid off first. In agreements which provide for the strict application of seniority in lay-offs, regular employment beyond the probation period is considered proof that the employee is competent and should therefore automatically be retained as long as junior men are working. Seniority rights do not, of course, interfere with the employer's right to discharge incompetent workmen.

Many agreements modify the application of seniority in lay-offs by allowing employers to retain those whom they consider "exceptional" or "indispensable." Agreements which grant this right to employers usually limit the number of "excepted" employees to a specified percentage of the working force or to certain types of jobs.

A large number of agreements permit lay-offs on the basis of seniority only after "consideration" has been given to relative skill and ability. In some agreements, seniority is given consideration only if skill and ability are relatively equal. To meet the unions' frequent objection that "skill," "ability," and "efficiency" are subjective factors which cannot always be judged impartially, some employers have adopted detailed plans for rating personnel efficiency. Although many of these plans improve the exactitude with which skill and competency can be judged, they do not entirely remove employees' fear of bias.

In a small number of agreements, the employees' place of residence, citizenship status, size of family, or other social factors are introduced to modify the application of strict seniority in lay-off. In some cases these factors are merely to receive "consideration" along with seniority; in others, seniority is not considered unless the other factors are equal. In the latter case seniority rights have little practical effect.

Another modification of strict seniority in lay-offs, which has been included in some agreements, is the exemption of members of union grievance committees or shop stewards by placing them at the top of their respective seniority lists. The advantage of this modification is the mutual interest of union and management in preserving the continuity of the bargaining and grievance adjustment personnel.

In case of a slack in production, lay-offs are to be made on the basis of (plant, departmental) seniority. The last person to be hired in (the plant, each department) will be the first laid off and the person of greatest seniority in (the plant, each department) will be the last laid off.

In case of a slack in production, lay-offs are to be made primarily on the basis of (plant, departmental) seniority. Due consideration will be given, however, to (a) knowledge, training, ability, skill and efficiency, (b) physical fitness, (c) family status—number of dependents, etc., (d) place of residence.

The displacement of employees with less service by senior employees is known as "bumping." It is a consequence of any type of seniority recognition. It is limited, however, when only departmental seniority is recognized. In such cases if a slack occurs in one department, senior employees in length of service will be laid off, while junior service employees in other departments will be kept on.

"Bumping" is possible only within the area of jobs which are largely interchangeable. In practice, therefore, "bumping" is usually permitted only when the amount of time necessary for an employee to attain full production is relatively short. Some agreements go so far as to confine "bumping" to departments in which the employee has formerly worked or to those jobs which the employee has previously held.

Additional restrictions may be placed on "bumping" rights of employees. Some agreements limit this right to employees with specified length of service with the employer, such as 3 or 5 years. Other agreements stipulate that an employee who displaces another must have a specified amount of service credit above that of the one displaced. Frequently, 6 months' or 1 year's added seniority is required in these agreements. Although such stipulations may be advantageous in that they curtail numerous personnel changes which might be a detriment to plant operation, there is likely to be dissatisfaction on the part of those employees who have not quite attained the requisite amount of seniority for "bumping" purposes.

Employees laid off from one department may exercise their departmental seniority in any department in which they have worked to displace employees with less seniority in those departments. Laid-off employees with insufficient seniority to displace anyone employed in the departments in which they have worked may exercise their plant seniority to displace employees in the [name of entrance department] with less plant seniority.

No employee laid off from one department may displace employees in other departments unless he has at least —— months greater seniority than the employee he is displacing.

Combined Work-Sharing and Lay-Off Plans

In cases of a severe seasonal depression or a downward fluctuation in the business cycle, both the company and the employees may object to strict application either of lay-off according to seniority or of

equal division of available work. Some agreements therefore provide for two steps when business falls off: (1) Equal division of work until hours are reduced to a specified point (usually 24 or 32 hours a week); and (2) if further curtailment is necessary, lay-off of the necessary number of regular employees. Occasionally the questions of when lay-offs are to begin and the method of lay-off are left to subsequent negotiations. Such plans may be applied to the plant as a whole or separately to each department or occupation.

In some agreements employees with less than a specified amount of seniority may be laid off before work sharing begins. This helps to stabilize employment for longer-service employees.

During slack periods available work shall be divided among regular employees to prevent lay-offs. If lay-offs cannot be prevented the last person hired in any particular department shall be the first to be laid off.

If it becomes necessary to reduce the force during the dull season, employees with less than 1 year's seniority will be the first laid off. If further reduction is necessary, the management will reduce the working time to 30 hours per week; if further reduction is necessary, seniority shall prevail.

Seniority in Reemployment

When seniority governs lay-offs, reemployment is in reverse order to lay-offs, and employees with the greatest seniority among those laid off are the first to be reemployed. If strict seniority was not followed when the lay-offs were made, but efficiency, skill, and other factors (family status, age, citizenship, etc.), were also taken into account, these same factors would automatically be considered in reemployment.

Except when seniority is recognized on a plant-wide basis, the problem of reemployment is complicated by the fact that production may not be resumed in "reverse order" to the slack in production. Certain departments which have been shut-down may be kept idle temporarily while other departments resume full production, in which case junior employees would be rehired in some departments while senior employees from other departments would still be on lay-off.

Insofar as compatible with efficiency of operation employees will be reemployed in the inverse order of their lay-off; that is, the first to be reemployed will be those employees with the greatest seniority. No new employees will be hired until all former employees who desire employment have been rehired.

Seniority in Promotions

The advancement of employees to higher-paid positions on the basis of seniority is provided in a number of union agreements. The senior employee must usually demonstrate his ability to fill the higher job through such means as a trial period. However, many agreements which apply seniority to reductions in force and reemploy-

ment do not recognize an employee's length of service to be the primary consideration when promotions are made. Most employers have felt that promotions should be given to the best qualified, regardless of seniority, and that the determination of employee qualifications is exclusively a management prerogative. In many cases, however, employers have recognized the fact that ignoring seniority in promotions has opened the way for charges of discrimination and left many employees with lowered morale. These employers have preferred to work out with the union a plan either for the strict application of seniority in promotions or, more commonly, some modification which allows seniority to be considered along with other factors.

The strict application of seniority in promotions is not frequent in industry as a whole, although it is the general practice in such fields of employment as the railroad and city passenger transportation. Under these agreements the oldest employee in point of service is given first opportunity for the promotional vacancy. He has a fair trial on the job and every opportunity to qualify for the vacancy. If he cannot qualify, or does not want the job, the next in line of senior employees is given a trial. Employees who fail to qualify are protected against loss of accumulated seniority rights. Usually, it is provided that they may return to their former positions without prejudice and resume their former seniority standing. In city street-car and bus transportation, for example, all "runs" are reopened and posted at regular intervals and the bidding is conducted on the basis of seniority. During the time between the regular postings, vacancies and new "runs" are filled in a similar manner.

When strict seniority is applied in selecting employees for promotions, the employer frequently is given the right to make exceptions—to fill either certain specified jobs or a certain percentage of future vacancies from outside the present working force. In some cases the employer must justify these exceptions to the union, by showing that specified skill or training is necessary and that no present employees are qualified. Particularly in the case of supervisory positions, the employer is given free choice of candidates without regard to seniority.

The practice in some industries is to establish a "line of promotion" within each department of the plant. When a number of employees are considered as competent for promotion, seniority determines the choice. In petroleum refining for example, employees are hired in a common-labor or general-work classification, and are promoted to the lowest-grade work in a particular department when openings occur.

In other agreements less consideration is given to seniority and more emphasis is placed on employees' relative skill and ability. Seniority governs the choice only between employees whose skill and ability are relatively equal. If other factors such as family status or

place of residence are introduced, seniority is pushed even farther in the background.

Promotion to all vacancies and new positions created during this agreement will be made from the group of present employees on the basis of [plant, departmental] seniority, provided the employee is qualified.

Promotion to all vacancies and new positions created during this agreement will be made from the group of present employees on the basis of competence and [plant, departmental] seniority. When more than one employee is considered competent for promotion, seniority will govern.

In order to meet special requirements, the employer may fill not more than —— percent of the vacancies and new positions arising during this agreement from outside the present group of employees.

Seniority in Transfer

The question of transfers most often arises in connection with assignments to day and night shifts. Employees may wish to transfer to or from a night shift and some union agreements grant employees preference in accordance with seniority. In addition, an employee may wish to transfer from one department to another—because of better promotional opportunities, more regular employment, or a variety of personal reasons. Some agreements also give preference in such transfers on the basis of seniority or on the basis of a combination of factors, including seniority.

Any employee wishing to transfer from one department to another may make application in writing to the employment office. The company shall place the applicant on a list in accordance with his plant seniority. After the transfer is effected, an employee who is not satisfied may not return to his former department except at the bottom of the line of promotion.

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COLLECTIVE AGREEMENT IN PETROLEUM INDUSTRY IN BRAZIL [1]

A MINIMUM wage of 10 milreis [2] for an 8-hour day, with at least time and a quarter for overtime, is provided by a collective agreement between the employees' union and the employers in the petroleum industry of Brazil, effective for 4 years beginning June 1, 1939. This agreement was concluded through the good offices of the Joint Conciliation Commission of the Federal District. It does not cover office employees, collectors, outside supervisors, managers, those who, in addition to their pay receive commissions on business done, traveling representatives, nor servants.

It is stipulated that the agreement shall be posted in a visible place in all the workshops.

[1] Data are from Revista do Trabalho (Rio de Janeiro), June 1939.

[2] Average exchange rate of milreis in 1939=6 cents.

Principal Provisions of the Agreement

Overtime.—The normal working day may be extended for 2 additional hours, with time and a quarter for overtime. In exceptional cases of force majeure the working day may be extended as long as necessary, with overtime at the rate of time and a quarter for the first 2 hours, time and three-quarters for the next 2 hours, and double time for all additional overtime up to 24 hours. Whenever the course of the daily period of service shall be interrupted by 6 hours or more of extraordinary work, there will be double payment, and the total remuneration will not be less than for 4 hours of service. If there is night work for which double time is paid, employers and workers are free to work or not on the following day, but both parties must give notice at the end of work. Time and a half shall be paid for indispensable work on Sundays, and the total pay for the Sunday work shall not be less than ordinary pay for an 8-hour day, with the guaranty of a weekly day of rest.

Rest time.—The normal day of work shall be broken by an interval of not less than an hour for lunch and rest, preferably before midday. Regardless of the kind of work done, workers must be given a weekly rest of 24 consecutive hours. All the time that the worker is at the order of the employer shall be considered work time.

Cleaning of storage tanks.—The work of cleaning the inside of storage tanks of gasoline, motor alcohol, oil, or kerosene may be done only from 7 to 10 a. m. or from 4 to 6 p. m., alternating 15 minutes of work and 10 minutes of rest. Employees doing this work shall be given a medical examination each month at the expense of the enterprise. Only in exceptional cases may the cleaning of storage tanks be done during hours other than those established, and in such cases the time shall be paid for at the rate of double time.

Housing.—Workers employed on islands where, in the judgment of the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, living conditions are not considered satisfactory, shall be assured of daily transportation from the mainland by the employing enterprise. The enterprises shall maintain at such islands boats ready for cases of urgent need.

Remuneration and employment.—Workers shall be paid for the entire working day if it is interrupted other than voluntarily by the worker himself. Any member of the union who is laid off because the job has been discontinued in the enterprise in which he worked shall have preference in employment, under equal circumstances, if the position or work is reestablished. The application of the present agreement shall not in any case serve as excuse for laying off workers, for reduction of pay or rank, nor for transfer.

Sick leave.—In case of illness, duly proved, which incapacitates the worker for his duties, the enterprise shall pay him for a maximum of

30 absences a year. Due proof of such illness shall be the sole criterion for the enterprises. Workers who have been separated from the service and those who have had less than 3 months' service are not entitled to sick leave.

Special regulations for chauffeurs.—For chauffeurs, 200 hours are recognized as the equivalent of a month's work. For chauffeurs of the Atlantic Co., the current wage of 17 milreis per day or 510 milreis per month shall be taken as the base, and bonded chauffeurs with more than a year of service are to be guaranteed an additional minimum of 150 milreis per month, when their total remuneration, including extra pay in accordance with this agreement, does not amount to 660 milreis per month. Both parties agree, respecting chauffeurs, that absences from work not due to illness, public service, or any other reason considered justifiable by the enterprises, shall be discounted in payment of remuneration. In the matter of claims the employers shall deal with the union through its directorate.

Employment and Labor Conditions

CHANGES IN MAN-HOUR EMPLOYMENT IN DEFENSE INDUSTRIES [1]

MANY key defense industries have shown striking increases in employment during the past year. Changes in the number of wage earners employed, however, do not adequately describe the increased amount of effort being applied in implementing defense. This expansion is indicated by changes in aggregate man-hours—the product of number employed and hours worked per wage earner—and by the added labor force that in effect is being created by overtime. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has made a study of man-hour and employment data for January 1940 and January 1941, covering 17 defense industries. It has also made estimates of the number of additional workers that would have been needed in these defense industries had hours been held at a 40-hour maximum, without overtime.

Despite the fact that many plants operated on a two- or three-shift basis in January, more than 137,000 or 6.6 percent additional workers would have been required if the defense industries had not operated overtime. Between January 1940 and January 1941 total man-hours in 17 selected defense industries increased 37 percent, whereas employment rose only 28 percent. Detailed figures by industries are shown in the accompanying table.

Three defense industries showed gains in total man-hours of more than 100 percent: Aircraft (138 percent), ammunition (129 percent), and firearms (122 percent). Increases of more than 50 percent occurred in shipbuilding (91 percent); engines, turbines, etc.—largely as a result of the expansion in aircraft engines—(89 percent); machine-tool accessories (65 percent); machine tools (55 percent); and explosives (55 percent). Gains in other defense industries ranged down to 13 percent for chemicals.

Approximately 83 percent of the additional workers required, had maximum hours been held at 40 per week, would have been needed for six large defense industries: Foundry and machine-shop products, 34,000; machine tools, 21,000; machine-tool accessories, 11,000; electrical machinery, 20,000; aircraft, 17,000; and brass, bronze, and copper products, 11,000.

[1] Prepared by Harrison F. Houghton, under the direction of Lewis E. Talbert, chief of the Bureau's Division of Employment Statistics.

Estimated Changes in Employment and Man-Hours in Selected Defense Industries, January 1940 to January 1941

Selected defense industries	Number of employees, January 1941	Percent of increase January 1941 over January 1940, in—		Equivalent number of additional workers, required in January 1941 at 40-hour maximum	
		Number employed	Total man-hours	Number employed	Percent of actual number employed
All industries	2,071,700	28.1	37.3	137,250	6.6
Aircraft	140,900	121.2	138.2	16,550	11.7
Shipbuilding	130,800	74.9	91.4	5,875	4.5
Explosives	8,900	45.9	54.5	100	1.1
Ammunition	10,500	128.3	129.4	(1)	(1)
Firearms	11,700	95.0	122.2	2,575	22.0
Machine tools	81,000	45.4	54.6	21,050	26.0
Machine-tool accessories	42,100	48.2	65.3	10,850	25.8
Screw-machine products	26,500	35.2	48.2	3,700	14.0
Abrasives	11,700	23.2	28.0	525	4.5
Optical goods	16,100	23.8	25.8	(1)	(1)
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	533,600	8.6	14.5	(1)	(1)
Foundry and machine-shop products	466,700	20.8	28.2	33,825	7.2
Aluminum manufactures	32,500	25.0	30.0	725	2.2
Brass, bronze, and copper products	111,600	26.4	37.3	11,150	10.0
Chemicals	86,600	11.9	13.3	650	.8
Electrical machinery	289,300	27.9	37.9	20,250	7.0
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills	71,200	78.0	89.3	9,425	13.2

[1] Operating less than 40 hours per week per wage earner in January 1941.

UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG NONWHITES IN THE UNITED STATES, MARCH 1940

DURING the week of March 24–30, 1940, slightly over 58 percent of the nonwhite population 14 years of age and over was in the labor force of the United States, as compared with 51.7 percent of the white population in the same age limits. This difference was almost entirely due to the heavy proportion (37.6 percent) of nonwhite women among the nonwhite workers, the corresponding percentage for white women being only 24.2.

Based on a preliminary tabulation of a cross section of the census returns for 1940,[1] the nonwhite workers (Negroes, Indians, Japanese, Chinese, and other nonwhites) 14 years of age and over numbered 5,637,047. Of this nonwhite group, 320,434 or 5.7 percent were employed on public emergency work and 617,128 or 10.9 percent were looking for work.

Table 1 suggests that in March 1940 "the productive capacity of the nonwhite population was not as completely utilized as the productive capacity of the white persons." Altogether, 10.9 percent of the non-

[1] United States. Bureau of the Census. State Figures on Employment Status of Persons 14 Years and Over (preliminary); March 24-30, 1940. (Data by color were available for 25 States and the District of Columbia.)

white workers were looking for jobs, as stated above, as compared with 9.5 percent of the white workers.

TABLE 1.—*Number and Percent of Nonwhite and White Workers in the United States 14 Years of Age and Over, by Sex, March 24–30, 1940*

Employment status	Total		Nonwhites		Whites	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Both sexes	52,840,762	100.0	5,637,047	100.0	47,203,715	100.0
Males	39,994,197	75.7	3,787,439	67.2	36,206,758	76.7
Females	12,846,565	24.3	1,849,608	32.8	10,996,957	23.3
Employed (except on public emergency work) [1]	45,350,430	85.8	4,699,485	83.4	40,650,945	86.1
Males	34,201,490	64.7	3,118,642	55.3	31,082,848	65.8
Females	11,148,940	21.1	1,580,843	28.0	9,568,097	20.3
On public emergency work (WPA, NYA, and CCC) [2]	2,380,062	4.5	320,434	5.7	2,059,628	4.4
Males	1,947,975	3.7	261,737	4.6	1,686,238	3.6
Females	432,087	.8	58,697	1.0	373,390	.8
Seeking work [3]	5,110,270	9.7	617,128	10.9	4,493,142	9.5
Males	3,844,732	7.3	407,060	7.2	3,437,672	7.3
Females	1,265,538	2.4	210,068	3.7	1,055,470	2.2

[1] Persons who, at any time during the week of Mar. 24–30, 1940, worked for pay or profit (except on public emergency work) or assisted without pay in a family enterprise; or who, during that week, had jobs (except on public emergency work), businesses, or professional enterprises at which they did not work because of vacation, industrial dispute, bad weather, temporary illness, or a lay-off not exceeding 4 weeks with instructions to return by a specific date.

[2] The number of persons reported in the census as on public emergency work (WPA, NYA, and CCC) was considerably less than the number indicated by the records of the various emergency work agencies. Of those classified erroneously in the census, it is probable that a majority were returned as employed in private or nonemergency Government work.

[3] Persons seeking work during the week of Mar. 24–30, 1940, who were not working on private or nonemergency Government work, nor on public emergency work.

Since at the time of the 1930 census Negroes constituted 95.2 percent of the nonwhite gainful workers, the 1940 data here tabulated may be regarded as indicative of the Negro's employment status. In this connection the facts disclosed concerning the nonwhite females are especially significant. The traditional part played by the Negro woman and the high percentage of single, widowed, and divorced Negro women who were employed at the time of the 1930 census do not wholly explain the great proportion of nonwhite women in the labor force. A complete explanation must take into consideration the heavier unemployment among Negro males, their low incomes (60 percent being classified as unskilled workers in the 1930 census) and the obvious necessity for Negro women's helping to support their families.

The proportion of nonwhites in quest of work during the census week was in general larger than the percentage of whites. This was the case for men in each of the 25 States and the District of Columbia, with the exception of Mississippi, while the proportion of workers seeking jobs was heavier for nonwhite than for white women in 20 of the 25 States, and the District of Columbia, the exceptions being West Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi.

In each of 10 selected Northern and Western States the proportion of the nonwhite labor force on public emergency work exceeded the

proportion of the white labor force engaged on such work. For nonwhites the percentages ranged from 5.8 in California to 18.3 in Illinois and for whites from 2.4 in New York to 5.7 in Missouri.

In two of the remaining selected States (Maryland and Oklahoma) and the District of Columbia the proportion of the nonwhite labor force on emergency work was higher than that of the white labor force.

TABLE 2.—*Employment Status of the Population 14 Years Old and Over, by Color, in Selected States, March 24–30, 1940*

Division, State, and color	Population 14 years old and over	Persons 14 years old and over in the labor force					Persons 14 years old and over not in the labor force [4]
		Total labor force		Employed (except on public emergency work) [1]	On public emergency work [2]	Seeking work [3]	
		Number	Percent of population	Percent of labor force	Percent of labor force	Percent of labor force	
Nonwhites							
United States	9,659,789	5,637,047	58.4	83.4	5.7	10.9	4,022,742
26 selected States	9,316,370	5,450,066	58.5	83.7	5.5	10.8	3,866,304
North and West:							
New York	478,255	300,685	62.9	73.7	7.3	19.0	177,570
New Jersey	175,157	106,935	61.1	71.5	[5] 12.2	[5] 16.3	68,222
Pennsylvania	359,018	201,784	56.2	65.4	[5] 9.1	25.5	157,234
Ohio	261,045	138,990	53.2	64.6	18.0	17.4	122,055
Indiana	94,344	51,897	55.0	67.8	[5] 12.5	[5] 19.6	42,447
Illinois	309,298	167,890	54.3	63.5	18.3	18.2	141,408
Michigan	166,774	93,151	55.9	68.1	[5] 15.6	[5] 16.4	73,623
Missouri	193,388	110,597	57.2	71.2	[5] 11.2	[5] 17.6	82,791
Kansas	51,036	25,236	49.4	67.3	[5] 13.5	[5] 19.3	25,800
California	246,292	150,380	61.1	82.5	[5] 5.8	[5] 11.7	95,912
South Atlantic:							
Maryland	226,709	139,250	61.4	85.0	[5] 3.8	[5] 11.2	87,459
District of Columbia	149,559	97,868	65.4	82.6	[5] 5.9	[5] 11.4	51,691
Virginia	469,373	268,919	57.3	87.4	[5] 2.8	9.8	200,454
West Virginia	88,267	44,147	50.0	83.4	[5] 3.8	[5] 12.8	44,120
North Carolina	674,635	387,350	57.4	88.8	[5] 3.0	8.1	287,285
South Carolina	527,282	318,005	60.3	91.7	[5] 4.1	[5] 4.2	209,277
Georgia	746,650	459,796	61.6	91.1	[5] 2.8	6.1	286,854
Florida	384,395	249,647	64.9	86.9	[5] 3.8	9.3	134,748
East South Central:							
Kentucky	166,535	94,368	56.7	81.0	[5] 4.3	[5] 14.7	72,167
Tennessee	375,750	223,432	59.5	86.5	[5] 3.1	10.4	152,318
Alabama	669,101	383,178	57.3	89.1	[5] 3.5	7.4	285,923
Mississippi	730,904	434,771	59.5	93.4	[5] 2.2	[5] 4.5	296,133
West South Central:							
Arkansas	340,154	183,924	54.1	89.0	[5] 3.6	[5] 7.4	156,230
Louisiana	595,457	337,881	56.7	87.1	[5] 3.7	9.2	257,576
Oklahoma	163,510	78,145	47.8	71.1	[5] 11.1	[5] 17.8	85,365
Texas	673,482	401,840	59.7	85.1	4.0	10.9	271,642
Whites							
United States	91,312,407	47,203,715	51.7	86.1	4.4	9.5	44,108,692
26 selected States	70,997,835	36,705,531	51.7	86.2	4.2	9.6	34,292,304
North and West:							
New York	10,430,000	5,678,912	54.4	84.2	2.4	13.4	4,751,088
New Jersey	3,177,555	1,750,126	55.1	85.4	3.5	11.1	1,427,429
Pennsylvania	7,320,728	3,785,953	51.7	82.2	4.0	13.8	3,534,775
Ohio	5,181,119	2,620,935	50.6	86.3	4.6	9.1	2,560,184
Indiana	2,565,206	1,275,448	49.7	87.6	4.8	7.6	1,289,758
Illinois	6,002,330	3,194,632	53.2	86.9	4.5	8.6	2,807,698
Michigan	3,869,375	2,035,140	52.6	86.9	3.9	9.1	1,834,235
Missouri	2,766,108	1,406,111	50.8	86.5	5.7	7.8	1,359,997
Kansas	1,342,003	649,051	48.4	87.9	5.0	7.1	692,952
California	5,378,553	2,802,877	52.1	86.0	3.5	10.5	2,575,676

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Employment Status of the Population 14 Years Old and Over, by Color, in Selected States, March 24–30, 1940*—Continued

Division, State, and color	Population 14 years old and over	Persons 14 years old and over in the labor force					Persons 14 years old and over not in the labor force [4]
		Total labor force		Employed (except on public emergency work) [1]	On public emergency work [2]	Seeking work [3]	
		Number	Percent of population	Percent of labor force	Percent of labor force	Percent of labor force	
Whites—Continued							
South Atlantic:							
Maryland	1,194,245	631,664	52.9	91.3	[5] 1.9	6.7	562,581
District of Columbia	402,984	243,684	60.5	93.3	[5] 1.3	[5] 5.4	159,300
Virginia	1,494,556	766,485	51.3	91.9	2.8	5.2	728,071
West Virginia	1,258,786	584,141	46.4	81.7	6.9	11.4	674,645
North Carolina	1,818,100	954,767	52.5	92.1	3.6	4.3	863,333
South Carolina	774,419	412,813	53.3	90.3	5.9	[5] 3.8	361,606
Georgia	1,487,191	776,602	52.2	90.8	4.3	4.9	710,589
Florida	1,071,633	540,664	50.5	87.1	5.8	7.1	530,969
East South Central:							
Kentucky	1,871,280	899,117	48.0	85.5	5.3	9.2	972,163
Tennessee	1,739,415	843,796	48.5	88.7	4.8	6.6	895,619
Alabama	1,306,651	632,566	48.4	87.7	6.1	6.2	674,085
Mississippi	787,639	385,329	48.9	86.7	8.0	5.4	402,310
West South Central:							
Arkansas	1,041,815	499,567	48.0	85.2	8.0	6.8	542,248
Louisiana	1,112,570	543,269	48.8	87.1	5.2	7.7	569,301
Oklahoma	1,538,313	727,804	47.3	83.7	6.7	9.6	810,509
Texas	4,065,261	2,064,078	50.8	87.8	4.6	7.6	2,001,183

[1] Persons who, at any time during the week of Mar. 24–30, 1940, worked for pay or profit (except on public emergency work) or assisted without pay in a family enterprise; or who, during that week, had jobs (except on public emergency work), businesses, or professional enterprises at which they did not work because of vacation, industrial dispute, bad weather, temporary illness, or a lay-off not exceeding 4 weeks with instructions to return by a specific date.

[2] The number of persons reported in the census as on public emergency work (WPA, NYA, and CCC) was considerably less than the number indicated by the records of the various emergency work agencies. Of those classified erroneously in the census, it is probable that a majority were returned as employed in private or nonemergency Government work.

[3] Persons seeking work during the week of Mar. 24–30, 1940, who were not working on private or nonemergency Government work, nor on public emergency work.

[4] Includes some persons whose activity during the week of Mar. 24–30, 1940, could not be determined definitely. It is believed that the majority of such persons were not in the labor force.

[5] Based on relatively small samples and subject to error.

FRENCH MEASURES DEALING WITH UNEMPLOYMENT

THE unemployment in France following the armistice caused the adoption of a number of measures [1] designed to control or ameliorate the situation. In October 1940, it was estimated by the central employment exchange in Paris, there were 1,100,000 unemployed workers of French nationality throughout France, half of whom were in the Paris area. Of the total number of unemployed, 300,000 were workers in the metalworking and allied trades, 100,000 in commerce, and 50,000 in the clothing industry, while approximately 150,000 were unskilled workers.

[1] International Labor Review (Montreal), February 1941: Measures Against Unemployment in France.

Prohibition of Multiple Employment and of Overtime

Employment in more than one job and the working of overtime were prohibited by an act of October 11, 1940. In order to insure effective supervision it was provided that no person may engage on his own account in an industrial, commercial, or handicraft occupation, if he is not registered with the commercial or the crafts register or if he fails to meet the social and fiscal charges fixed for the occupation. The following persons are prohibited from engaging in private paid employment or undertaking privately to do work for remuneration: Officials, employees, and workers in State, local, and colonial public services, railway employees, employees of subsidized maritime and air navigation companies and of municipal and departmental enterprises, and the permanent staffs of social-insurance funds. Employees in industrial, commercial, and handicraft occupations may not perform paid work for hours in excess of the maximum limit fixed by laws and regulations for the occupation in question.

Clauses for the application of these prohibitions must be included in all collective agreements, or, failing a collective agreement of wide scope, the methods of applying the Act are to be fixed by an order of the Minister and Secretary of State for Industrial Production and Labor. Decrees were to be issued fixing the conditions under which the labor inspectors would enforce these provisions and the method of applying them to agricultural occupations.

Restrictions on Employment of Women

As a means of combating unemployment, another law of October 11, 1940, provided for restriction of the employment of women, particularly married women. In public administrative departments and enterprises working under concession, the engagement or recruitment of married women was prohibited, although it was provided that exemptions might be granted in cases of women whose husbands were unable to support the household. Automatic retirement of married women with the grant of a pension was provided for women over 50 years of age in the State services, with the provision that this may be extended by decree to any other public service or concession. Any married woman employed in an administrative department may be given leave without pay if her husband supports the household, unless there are at least three dependent children. A pension may be granted to such women if they have completed the necessary length of service; if not, they may be given a lump sum equivalent to one month's pay for each year of service.

Up to July 31, 1941, women who are entitled to claim a pension prematurely may be retired automatically and will receive a pension

based on their years of service, with a bonus proportionate to the period which must elapse before they reach the age limit.

In addition to these provisions for the compulsory termination of the services of married women, encouragement is given to women to resign voluntarily in the event of marriage, a bonus varying according to the length of service before the age of 25 being paid, up to a maximum of 10,000 francs, and on condition that the marriage takes place before the age of 28.

The law provided that orders should be issued within 3 months, fixing the percentage of posts which could be filled by women in each of the administrative departments, bodies, or undertakings. Within the same period a maximum percentage was also to be fixed for women employed in private enterprises (except agriculture).

Measures for Relief of Unemployment

A number of measures were also adopted during October 1940, designed to provide employment. Among them were a public-works program which empowered the Secretary of State for Communications to undertake a program of reconstruction and equipment work covering various means of communication such as bridges, tunnels, roads, and ports. A total amount of 8,000,000 francs was authorized for this purpose. Long-term State loans were provided for financing works of this nature and works of interest to agriculture undertaken by public bodies.

A law of October 11, 1940, provided that the State would subsidize and supervise the reconstruction of houses which were partly or wholly destroyed by acts of war prior to June 25, 1940, while another act of the same date provided for the clearance of Parisian slum areas.

Placement and Assistance for the Unemployed

The Departmental and municipal employment exchanges and the public unemployment funds were abolished in October. A new system created in their place provided for regional labor offices under the Minister and Secretary of State for Industrial Production and Labor. These offices and their local sections were empowered to form occupational sections, and the establishment of an agricultural section was made mandatory in specified areas. The Employment and Manpower Directorate is responsible for coordinating and directing the activities of these offices and for the distribution of labor on a national scale.

To workers who are involuntarily unemployed, daily allowances are payable, on the recommendation of the divisional labor inspector. In Paris and in municipalities in the Departments of the Seine and Seine-et-Oise, such payments amount to 12 francs for the head of

a household and 6 francs for his wife and other dependents, with the exception of children for whom family allowances are paid; in municipalities with a population of over 15,000, the rates are 10 francs and 5 francs respectively; in municipalities of from 5,000 to 15,000 population, 8 francs and 4 francs, respectively; and in other areas, 7 francs and 3.50 francs. The cost of this assistance is met by the State and local authorities. The share of the latter may not be less than 5 percent nor more than 20 percent of the total cost.

PROJECTS FOR REDUCING UNEMPLOYMENT IN NORWAY [1]

A DECREE issued by the Norwegian Department of Social Affairs on December 2, 1940, authorized the expenditure of Government funds up to a total of 40,000,000 kroner for the remainder of the fiscal year 1940–41, for labor projects intended to reduce unemployment. The decree, which was approved by the Reich Commissioner for Occupied Norway, provides that the funds may be used for labor projects carried out for the State or for counties, municipalities, private individuals or firms, or associations beneficial to society. The object of projects receiving State or municipal support must be first of all the reduction of unemployment, particularly in the winter months, and only such projects as are for the good of the State are to be given consideration. There is a strict limitation on the remuneration of individuals or firms receiving State support for the carrying out of such projects, and all work must be done by hand unless to do so would result in an excessive increase in costs. As far as possible Norwegian raw materials must be used.

As a rule labor projects coming within the provisions of the decree are required to employ only persons who are without work through no fault of their own, who have not succeeded in securing work through the Labor Distribution Office, and who have no other means of livelihood. Unemployed persons with dependents are given preference.

In general, under this program, State labor projects and those of municipalities and counties include needed public works of all kinds, and first consideration is given to new construction and larger works of improvement. Private labor projects, including work carried out by associations beneficial to society, may be authorized for road building and similar work and for housing projects, in cases in which no State or municipal support or insurance benefits are received.

The State contribution for labor projects designed to reduce unemployment amounts to 2 kroner per 8-hour day for each person employed by municipalities and counties on street and road work, forestry

[1] Data are from report by Ethel B. Fjelle, clerk, United States Consulate, Oslo.

work, etc., and for workers on private labor projects such as building of country roads, clearance work, etc. In both cases the workers must have been hired through the Labor Distribution Office. For repair work and completion of municipal construction work amounting to more than 1,000 kroner, the State grant is limited to 30 percent of the wages paid. If the financial condition of a municipality is not good and there is an unusual amount of unemployment, the above grants may be increased to 3 kroner and 40 percent, respectively. For housing construction in country districts, State support is granted in the form of a mortgage up to 1,500 kroner, one-tenth of the amount and 3 percent interest per annum being paid when 2 years have elapsed. The loan must be within 90 percent of the official taxable value. Such loans are exempt from the usual recorder's and other fees. Remodeling and repair of apartments which cost more than 500 kroner (in special instances, 200 kroner) may receive a State grant amounting to not more than 30 percent of the wages paid.

Wages on State, municipal, and county projects may not exceed 80 percent of normal wages paid for similar work, with a general minimum of 4.50 kroner per day for work paid for on an hourly or daily basis; and for work done on contract not less than 6 kroner or, in general, not over 9 kroner, per day. Wages are fixed according to the local cost of living, and the number of dependents is also taken into account.

If female domestic help is employed when such help has not previously been engaged, or if more help of this kind is employed than heretofore, unemployment among women thereby being reduced, a reduction in taxes may be granted.

Youth in Industry

ACTIVITIES OF NATIONAL YOUTH ADMINISTRATION, 1935–40 [1]

PART-TIME jobs for approximately 500,000 out-of-school youth and jobs enabling approximately 500,000 students to continue their education in schools, colleges, and universities will be provided between July 1, 1940, and June 30, 1941, by the National Youth Administration. Young people who are residents of nearly every county in every State and in the District of Columbia, Hawaii, the Virgin Islands, Puerto Rico, and Alaska, will profit through this service.

Organization and Administration

The National Youth Administration was established on June 26, 1935, within the Works Progress Administration, and was transferred to the Federal Security Agency on July 1, 1939. [1]

The Administration carries on two major programs:

1. The out-of-school work program provides employment and work experience on useful public projects for needy youth who have left school and have been unable to obtain employment.
2. The student-work program provides part-time employment for needy youth enrolled in schools, colleges, and universities to enable them to remain in school and properly continue their education.

The effort has been to decentralize the administration of the NYA program as far as efficiency permits. The present Administrator, who has been in charge since the agency was first established, has a small staff in the national office in Washington. A national committee, composed of representatives of youth, education, labor, industry, and agriculture, has been organized to advise the National Youth Administrator on youth problems and NYA policies and activities.

In each of the 48 States, as well as in New York City, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, a Youth Administrator has the major responsibility for the direction of NYA in the area under his jurisdiction. Five regional offices constitute a liaison between the central office at Washington and the State offices.

[1] Data are from U. S. Federal Security Agency: First Annual Report of the Federal Security Administrator, 1940, Washington, 1941; Social Security Board, Social Security Bulletin, Washington, February 1941; National Youth Administration, Annual Report for the year ending June 30, 1940, Washington, 1940, and Meeting the Problems of Youth, Washington, 1941.

NYA out-of-school work projects must be cosponsored by public agencies, and as a guaranty of the project's usefulness and of community interest in its success, these cosponsors usually provide materials, equipment, and expert supervision. The products resulting from NYA work are for use by public agencies. Only projects providing services or facilities that could not be made available within the regular budgets of the cosponsoring agencies may be initiated. No project is undertaken which would displace regularly employed personnel.

Distribution of Funds

Funds for the out-of-school work program are allocated among the States and Territories on the basis of youth population. In the student-work program, allotments to secondary schools are made by the State Youth Administrator after consultation with school officials and welfare agencies upon the basis of school census, youth population, need, school facilities in the respective States, and other basic criteria. College and graduate allotments are made on the basis of the enrollment of participating institutions.

Table 1 shows distribution of Federal funds used for NYA programs, by years, and average numbers of young persons employed on these programs, 1939–40, with appropriations and estimated employment for 1940–41.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Federal Funds Used for NYA Programs, 1935–36 to 1939–40, with Appropriations for 1940–41*

Year	Federal funds [1]	Average number of youth employed
1935-36	$35,535,354	445,000
1936-37	65,619,042	579,000
1937-38	51,156,505	451,000
1938-39	75,146,908	593,000
1939-40	94,427,805	715,000
1940-41	95,984,000 [2] 30,485,375 [3] 21,955,000	[4] 779,000

[1] Exclusive of administrative funds.
[2] First Supplemental Civil Functions Appropriation Act, 1941.
[3] First Deficiency Appropriation Act, 1941.
[4] Estimated.

The distribution by States (as of November 1, 1940) of NYA funds for operation of programs during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1941, is reported in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*NYA Fund Allotments (as of Nov. 1, 1940) for Operation of NYA Programs, Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1941, by States*

State or Territory	Total	Out-of-school work program			Student-work program
		Total	Regular appropriation	Supplementary appropriation	
Grand total	$126,337,529	$98,419,375	$67,884,000	$30,535,375	$27,918,154
Alabama	2,878,224	2,339,518	1,607,497	732,021	538,706
Arizona	484,784	356,196	244,744	111,452	128,588
Arkansas	1,938,938	1,605,614	1,103,227	502,387	333,324
California	5,792,858	4,121,275	2,831,753	1,289,522	1,671,583
Colorado	1,092,099	787,695	541,230	246,465	304,404
Connecticut	1,442,901	1,195,792	821,636	374,156	247,109
Delaware	213,982	180,324	123,902	56,422	33,658
District of Columbia	567,189	405,914	278,906	127,008	161,275
Florida	1,522,758	1,213,437	833,760	379,677	309,321
Georgia	3,282,367	2,652,610	1,822,624	829,986	629,757
Idaho	492,862	344,845	236,945	107,900	148,017
Illinois	7,511,116	5,958,997	4,094,463	1,864,534	1,552,119
Indiana	3,094,543	2,389,422	1,641,786	747,636	705,121
Iowa	2,339,910	1,819,307	1,250,057	569,250	520,603
Kansas	1,994,194	1,461,271	1,004,048	457,223	532,923
Kentucky	2,514,737	2,036,499	1,399,291	637,208	478,238
Louisiana	2,390,272	1,849,842	1,271,038	578,804	540,430
Maine	686,142	549,732	377,724	172,008	136,410
Maryland	1,565,810	1,287,571	884,698	402,873	278,239
Massachusetts	3,864,475	3,085,327	2,119,947	965,380	779,148
Michigan	4,685,985	3,669,920	2,521,624	1,148,296	1,016,065
Minnesota	2,551,051	1,939,498	1,332,641	606,857	611,553
Mississippi	2,205,700	1,804,225	1,239,694	564,531	401,475
Missouri	3,546,103	2,799,399	1,923,484	875,915	746,704
Montana	571,752	396,473	272,419	124,054	175,279
Nebraska	1,447,314	1,090,421	749,235	341,186	356,893
Nevada	85,030	63,340	43,521	19,819	21,690
New Hampshire	421,159	315,148	216,540	98,608	106,011
New Jersey	3,709,020	3,117,450	2,142,019	975,431	591,570
New Mexico	456,711	346,833	238,311	108,522	109,878
New York City and Long Island	7,703,190	6,110,384	4,198,482	1,911,902	1,592,806
New York (excluding New York City and Long Island)	4,837,689	3,848,120	2,644,066	1,204,054	989,569
North Carolina	3,528,996	2,801,124	1,924,669	876,455	727,872
North Dakota	795,963	574,556	394,781	179,775	221,407
Ohio	6,353,278	5,008,184	3,441,153	1,567,031	1,345,094
Oklahoma	2,781,167	2,092,990	1,438,106	654,884	688,177
Oregon	965,532	701,615	482,084	219,531	263,917
Pennsylvania	9,226,409	7,382,552	5,072,596	2,309,956	1,843,857
Rhode Island	643,164	513,916	353,115	160,801	129,248
South Carolina	1,988,653	1,570,178	1,078,879	491,299	418,475
South Dakota	811,416	548,591	376,940	171,651	262,825
Tennessee	2,839,381	2,266,260	1,557,161	709,099	573,121
Texas	6,599,088	5,193,165	3,568,255	1,624,910	1,405,923
Utah	645,026	420,695	289,062	131,633	224,331
Vermont	329,625	252,744	173,662	79,082	76,881
Virginia	2,567,916	2,006,208	1,378,478	627,730	561,708
Washington	1,587,122	1,170,032	803,936	366,096	417,090
West Virginia	1,759,821	1,403,251	964,182	439,069	356,570
Wisconsin	2,924,747	2,201,342	1,512,555	688,787	723,405
Wyoming	227,865	180,568	124,069	56,499	47,297
Alaska	32,795	27,005	27,005		5,790
Hawaii	51,410				51,410
Puerto Rico	822,050	750,000	750,000		72,050
Virgin Islands	75,240	72,000	72,000		3,240
Compensation	140,000	140,000	90,000	50,000	
Supervision	750,000				750,000

The First Deficiency Appropriation Act, 1941, provided a supplementary appropriation of $21,955,000 (not included in the above table) to be expended in accordance with the provisions of the National Youth Administration Appropriation Act, 1941, as amended, with certain specified exceptions.

Out-of-School Work Program

Young persons who have left school and have no jobs are eligible for part-time employment on the NYA out-of-school work program. Approximately 90 percent of the boys and girls so assigned have had little or no experience in remunerative work.

Among the principal advantages claimed for the program are the following:

1. Young persons who would otherwise have no employment are provided with useful work and NYA wages.
2. Goods, services, facilities, and buildings needed by local communities, which are not provided for under ordinary budgets, are made available through NYA projects.
3. The young people get valuable work experience which makes them more employable.
4. Great numbers of these youth are being afforded the opportunity through their NYA employment to participate actively in the industries essential to the program of national defense.

Other advantages of almost as much importance are the development of homemaking experience for girls, the general emphasis on health and health habits, guidance in job opportunities, the building up of character, and the acquiring of habits of cooperation.

PROJECT PLANNING

Project plans originate in local communities, being based on community needs and the number and types of the jobless young persons in the locality, and are submitted to the State Youth Administrator for approval and the allocation of funds. The approval of the central office at Washington is necessary only in case of heavy material costs or when the undertaking is of a technical character.

SELECTION OF YOUTH

To be eligible for work on an out-of-school project the young person must be a citizen of the United States, unemployed, in need of a job and employment experience, and between 18 and 24 years of age, inclusive. (It was provided, however, that after August 1, 1940, exceptions may be made under special circumstances for those 16 and 17 years old.)

Local relief agencies are requested to certify to the National Youth Administration all unemployed and needy youth known to such agencies. In the case

of youth from families which have been subject to relief investigations, certifications by the investigating agencies, including State and local public relief agencies, the Work Projects Administration, and the Farm Security Administration are accepted as prima facie evidence of the youth's need. For youth whose families have not been subject to investigation by a public relief agency, the State Youth Administration accepts referrals from nonrelief agencies or direct applications from youth, and conducts its own investigation into the youth's need.

Before being assigned to a project, each young person is interviewed in order to discover the kind of work experience that would most closely fit his or her aptitudes and interests. Subsequently every effort is made to measure and evaluate the progress of each boy and girl.

Every youth working on an NYA project must be registered with a local agency of the State Employment Service. In developing projects, the placement service of the employment office is utilized in order that these NYA young people can be engaged on work related to the local labor-market opportunities.

The ratio of eligible applicants to available jobs under the NYA out-of-school program is 3 to 1.

CHARACTERISTICS OF NYA PROJECT WORKERS

According to a sample survey of NYA project workers in 7 States, made in the week ending February 25, 1939, almost two-thirds of the out-of-school youth were under 21, the average age being 19 years and 9 months. Of these young persons 86.4 percent were white, 12.1 percent were Negro, and 1.5 percent belonged to other races. Forty percent had no formal schooling above the eighth grade; 30 percent had done some high-school work but had not graduated; only one in 30 of these young persons had been able to attend college, and only one out of 10 who had been to college had received a diploma. Slightly more than 50 percent of the NYA project workers had never had a job before being employed under the NYA. The major work experience that any of these young persons had had in private employment was on unskilled jobs. Approximately 50 percent had been employed on NYA projects for less than 6 months, 70 percent for less than 12 months, and 87 percent under 2 years.

EMPLOYMENT AND TURN-OVER

In the fiscal year 1939–40, on the average 264,460 youth were working on the out-of-school program—149,138 young men and 115,322 young women.

The young people on the program here reported must accept bona-fide offers of jobs in private employment. The NYA, however, assures them of reassignment to their project at the termination of their private jobs. Youths who are dropped from the program because of its curtailment may also be taken on again.

As a result of the high labor turn-over on the out-of-school work projects, employment was extended during the year 1939–40 to 575,000 different young persons. It is estimated that 1,100,000 different young people have shared in the out-of-school work program since it was inaugurated.

LOCAL, RESIDENT, AND REGIONAL PROJECTS

Local projects.—The great majority of the out-of-school youth on the NYA projects live at home with their families. They spend a number of hours each day at their work and frequently spend additional time in attending related training classes.

Resident projects.—As of December 1940 approximately 600 NYA resident projects, located in 45 States, were in operation, employing about 30,000 young men and young women (or about 10 percent of the total youth on the out-of-school work program at that time). Young people on resident projects live at the job site, in various kinds of quarters from remodeled dwelling houses to large dormitories, provision being made for their subsistence by a deduction from their wages.

Resident projects were undertaken on a national scale in the spring of 1937, after a year of experimentation had proved how difficult it was to provide suitable work for youth living in sparsely populated rural sections. It was found that by bringing together these small and scattered groups of young people into resident units, improved supervision, as well as more useful and efficient work, could be secured. Later, a number of resident projects were established for urban youth.

Many of these projects are carried on in conjunction with agricultural and mechanical schools and colleges, teachers' colleges, vocational schools, and hospitals.

Regional projects.—In 1938–39, another type of resident project was developed—the regional project. In a region including several States, project employees who have shown more than ordinary aptitude or ability have been offered the opportunity to attend a regional center where more attention has been given to the development of their talents. These centers give these young people more technical and specialized exploratory work experience, particularly in the mechanical fields. On the basis of this experience, such larger resident centers are being constructed and put into operation in nearly all States during the current year.

HOURS AND EARNINGS

The total payment for the wages of young persons employed on the program during 1939–40 was $50,133,599, the average earnings per month of all young persons on nonresident projects being $15.15 for an average of 53 hours of work per month.

Resident project youth live at the project location and their food and lodging are provided by the National Youth Administration. On these projects, the monthly gross wage including the cost of shelter and subsistence may not exceed $30 per month for youth in full-time residence, or $20 for part-time residence. The minimum net cash payment to the youth in addition to the subsistence furnished (including food, lodging, sanitation, medical and dental care) has been set at $8 per month.

In the wage schedule for 1940–41 the urban-rural differentials are eliminated and the basic rate is fixed at $18 for the North Atlantic, East North Central, and Pacific States, $14 in the East South Central and Southwestern States, and $16 in the remaining States. "The new regulations increase the rate for junior foremen and crew leaders to $6 above the basic rate in the same area, but permit only 5 percent of the youth workers to be assigned to duties requiring these rates."

PHYSICAL ACCOMPLISHMENTS

The following table giving statistics for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940, indicates the character and amount of work done under the out-of-school work program.

TABLE 3.—*Major Work Completed in NYA Out-of-School Work Program During Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1940*

Type of project	Unit	Work completed		Work in progress: New construction or additions
		New construction or additions	Repair or improvement	
Public buildings	Number	3,518	7,345	765
Administrative buildings	do	58	306	18
Educational buildings, total	do	526	4,361	379
Schools	do	324	3,872	213
Libraries	do	12	116	4
Dormitories	do	55	207	82
Other educational buildings	do	135	166	80
Social and recreational buildings, total	do	544	1,103	213
Auditoriums	do	9	95	13
Gymnasiums	do	41	201	46
Youth center buildings	do	105	235	57
Community buildings	do	210	372	70
Other social and recreational buildings	do	179	200	27
Charitable, medical, and mental buildings, total	do	49	209	5
Hospitals and clinics	do	9	77	3
Isolation buildings	do	31	11	----
Other charitable, medical, or mental buildings	do	9	121	2
Other public buildings	do	2,341	1,366	150
Agricultural buildings	do	406	441	56
Workshop buildings	do	125	156	25
Street markets, roadside stands, booths, etc	do	1,442	165	12
Other buildings	do	368	604	57
Recreational structures and facilities:				
Recreational structures, total	do	1,284	1,290	164
Stadiums, grandstands, and bleachers	do	360	568	58
Shower and dressing-room structures	do	157	317	28
Bandstands, bandshells, and outdoor theaters	do	73	81	27
Park and trailside shelters	do	694	324	51
Recreational areas and facilities:				
Parks	Acres	28,030	20,127	----
Playgrounds	Number	747	1,706	----
Fair and rodeo grounds	Acres	327	843	----
Athletic fields	Number	506	939	----
Golf courses	do	23	54	----
Tables and benches, fireplaces in picnic areas	do	45,204	----	----

TABLE 3.—*Major Work Completed in NYA Out-of-School Work Program During Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1940*—Continued

Type of project	Unit	Work completed		Work in progress:
		New construction or additions	Repair or improvement	New construction or additions
Recreational structures and facilities—Continued.				
Recreational areas and facilities—Continued.				
Bridle paths, bicycle paths, and trails	Miles	108	74	
Swimming and wading pools	Number	115	163	
Tennis courts	do	682	1,225	
Other game or play courts	do	1,021	539	
Road and street work:				
Highways, roads, and streets	Miles	1,192	3,083	
Sidewalks	do	158	81	
Culverts	Number	146,245	28,579	
Bridges	do	700	654	60
Roadside landscaping	Miles	1,659		
Parking areas and overlooks	Square yards.	501,878	354,528	
Street signs, other signs, and markers placed	Number	384,537		
Traffic lines and zones painted	Miles	802	105	
Curbs, gutters, and guardrails	do	150	76	
Airport and airway work:				
Landing fields	Number	6	14	
Seaplane landing facilities	do	96	3	13
Aircraft hangars and airport buildings	do	14	54	8
Airway markers placed	do	1,046		
Conservation activities:				
Riverbank and streambed improvement (including levees and retaining walls).	Miles	1,041	24	
Check and storage dams	Number	4,439	81	
Soil-erosion control and landscaping	Acres	163,357		
Trees planted	Number	7,006,040		
Tree and plant nurseries	Acres	25,405	1,327	
Firebreaks and fire trails	Miles	1,527	96	
Fire-observation structures	Number	10	70	
Bird and game sanctuaries	Acres improved.	11,556	10,060	
Fish hatcheries	Number	895	75	
Stocking, fingerling fish	do	137,477,746		
Stocking, other game	do	189,335		
Fencing and snow fences	Miles	398	542	
Public utilities:				
Sewer and water lines	do	133	19	
Sanitary privies, cesspools, and septic tanks	Number	2,366	98	
Storage tanks, reservoirs, cisterns	do	83	124	
Telephone and electric lines	Miles	583	293	
Drainage ditches and lines	do	102	110	

	Unit	Amount
Production:		
Clothing produced or renovated	Number of articles	1,777,666
Shoes repaired	Number of pairs	24,098
Household articles, bedding, etc	Number of articles	478,466
Hospital supplies, bandages, etc	do	8,289,213
Recreational and playground equipment constructed or repaired.	do	62,502
Furniture constructed or repaired	do	729,940
Toys made or renovated	Number	628,908
Window and door sashes, screens, and frames	Number of articles	27,869
Tools and mechanical equipment constructed or repaired	Number	81,956
Copper and tin gutter and spout constructed	Linear feet	18,379
Enamelware produced	Number of articles	998
Airport markers (windsocks, boundary, and range cones)	Number	3,408
Concrete block and precast concrete articles	do	1,208,850
Lumber produced	Board feet	3,572,355
Firewood cut	Cords	189,803
Crushed stone, sand, and gravel produced	Cubic yards	256,074
School lunches served	Number	25,712,089
Foodstuffs produced	Pounds	2,956,800
Canning and preserving	do	1,366,518
Museum articles prepared or renovated	Number	174,292
Museum articles cataloged	do	295,693

The Student-Work Program

The NYA student-work program includes provisions for young people in secondary and high schools, colleges, and universities.

Tax-exempt, nonprofit, bona fide educational institutions, both public and private, may take part in this program. During the 1939–40 scholastic year, 28,301 secondary and high schools and 1,698 colleges and universities participated in the program.

Students who wish employment apply to the authorities at the institutions they desire to attend. The workers are selected by the local school authorities "on the basis of need and scholarship." These authorities also plan the work to which the students are assigned. "No job may be created under the student program which displaces any regularly employed worker, and no NYA student may perform work which is provided for by the schools' normal budget."

CHARACTERISTICS OF NYA STUDENTS

Of the 613,350 young people who had employment under the student program in the academic year 1939–40, almost three-fourths were in institutions below the college level. Of the youth in colleges and universities who had employment under the NYA in that year, less than 3 percent were graduate students.

One-fourth of the families of NYA students were receiving relief or some form of public assistance other than NYA, such as WPA employment, general relief, Farm Security Administration aid, or Social Security benefits.

The income of families of NYA students, as reported by the youth, ranged quite low; over two-thirds of the families were reported to have annual incomes of less than $900, and the average was $645 a year.

According to a Nation-wide survey made in February 1940, NYA students "received, as a group, higher grades than the average of the general student body in four-fifths of the institutions included in the survey." The scholastic averages recorded for almost two-thirds of the NYA students gave them a place in the superior half of the student body.

EARNINGS AND HOURS

In the academic year 1939–40 the monthly wages of NYA students were from $3 to $6 for high-school students, $10 to $20 for college students, and as much as $30 for graduate students, with a minimum of $20.

In 1939–40 NYA students worked a maximum of 3 hours each school day and 7 hours per nonschool day. College and graduate students were restricted to 8 hours of work in any one day. Maximum work hours for school students' school days in 1940–41 have been fixed at 4. The same wage schedules as those of 1939–40 are to be maintained for

the scholastic year 1940–41 except that the minimum of the monthly earnings of graduate students is reduced to $10.

The general types of work done by NYA students are listed below:

Departmental assistance:
- Tutoring retarded pupils.
- Collecting and preparing supplementary teaching material.
- Mounting and cataloging specimens.
- Preparing models and exhibits.
- Repairing books.
- Working in libraries.
- Mimeographing.
- Grading papers.
- Assisting instructors and department heads.

Construction and maintenance:
- Repairing and remodeling educational buildings, playgrounds and gymnasiums, athletic fields.
- Repairing and constructing apparatus used in classrooms and laboratories.
- Building and repairing classroom furniture and fixtures.
- Landscaping.
- Constructing sidewalks, roadways.

Clerical assistance and service:
- Typing and stenography.
- General office work, filing.
- Maintenance of records.
- Switchboard operation.

Semiprofessional assistance:
- Research and statistical assistance.
- Recreational leadership.
- Social service.
- Health work.
- Laboratory assistance.

NEGRO PARTICIPATION

In educational institutions to which Negroes are admitted Negro young people take part in the general employment projects. Furthermore, special allocations of funds are made to Negro colleges. An allotment of $468,000 was made in 1939–40 to 113 Negro colleges from the general student-work funds. A special allocation of $105,000 available to Negro college and graduate students has been used to make it possible for Negro students residing in States which have restricted university facilities for Negroes to pursue their courses in other States.

The proportion of Negro youth on the student-work program is about the same as in the general youth population—10.4 percent.

Legal Aid

LEGAL-AID WORK IN THE UNITED STATES, 1939

LEGAL-AID work in the United States in 1939 included the handling of 273,971 new and reopened cases and the collection of $687,033 for clients. The gross operating costs reported were $630,625 and the fees and commissions received amounted to $39,193.[1] These figures are from reports of committees of the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations submitted for discussion at its 1940 conference.[2]

More detailed figures from these reports are given in table 1, which shows the legal-aid work done in the year 1939 by agencies which are members of the national association and those not so affiliated. The number of new and reopened cases handled by the member agencies was 188,589, and the amount collected for clients was $667,465. Organizations not then members of the national association handled 22,876 cases and collected for clients the sum of $17,549.

TABLE 1.—*Statistics of Legal-Aid Work in the United States, 1939*

MEMBERS OF NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

City	Year association established	Population served	New cases handled	Collected for clients	Gross cost of operation	Fees and commissions
All cities			[a] 188,589	$667,465	$491,509	[1] $37,811
Albany, N. Y.	1923	130,000	988	3,993	3,633	349
Baltimore, Md.	1929	800,000	4,735	11,385	17,468	508
Boston, Mass.	1900	2,000,000	10,283	69,263	30,332	11,799
Bridgeport, Conn.	1918	146,716	1,300	2,300	3,050	
Buffalo, N. Y.	1912	[2] 762,408	6,178	[3] 147,994	29,710	942
Cambridge, Mass.	1914	200,000	[4] 875	(5)	2,354	133
Chicago, Ill.[6]	1886	4,900,000	16,018	76,227	49,506	1,467
Chicago, Ill.[7]	1895	300,000	928	3,832	(5)	
Cincinnati, Ohio	1908	485,500	7,580	6,799	9,241	1,223
Cleveland, Ohio	1905	1,250,000	7,461	7,882	(5)	952
Columbus, Ohio	1935	300,000	511	(5)		
Dallas, Tex.	1915	380,927	1,545	2,215	1,889	
Denver, Colo.	1925	300,000	2,418	(5)	5,781	86
Des Moines, Iowa	1935	175,000	258	200	575	
Detroit, Mich.	1909	2,000,000	22,159	63,877	35,036	1,384
Durham, N. C.	1931	65,000	404	(5)	(5)	

See footnotes at end of table.

[1] The work of the legal-aid committees of various bar associations and of legal-aid clinics in law schools is not covered in these statistics.

[2] National Association of Legal Aid Organizations. Reports of Committees 1939-40, for Discussion at the Conference in Jacksonville, Fla., October 31-November 1, 1940. (Durham, N. C., 1940.)

TABLE 1.—*Statistics of Legal-Aid Work in the United States, 1939*—Continued

MEMBERS OF NATIONAL ASSOCIATION—Continued

City	Year association established	Population served	New cases handled	Collected for clients	Gross cost of operation	Fees and commissions
Grand Rapids, Mich	1921	176,000	1,239	$2,634	$4,929	$117
Hartford, Conn	1927	177,348	1,427	(5)	1,350	(5)
Indianapolis, Ind	1939	364,161	31	(5)	(5)	(5)
Jacksonville, Fla	1931	185,000	708	1,923	3,111	59
Los Angeles, Calif	1929	2,000,000	3,833	(5)	8,891	(5)
Louisville, Ky	1922	350,000	10,123	[8] 20,149	9,366	38
Madison, Wis	1931	[9] 112,737	283	(5)	356	
Milwaukee, Wis	1916	578,249	[10] 2,501	4,792	5,500	
Minneapolis, Minn	1912	485,000	[6] 2,346	2,235	8,652	83
Montreal, Que	1922	200,000	302	25,386	(5)	(5)
New Bedford, Mass	1923	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
New Haven, Conn	1927	176,500	3,282	3,219	2,450	
New Orleans, La	1932	523,000	473	917	1,004	
New York, N. Y.[11]	1876	[12] 692,971	33,895	72,211	123,008	14,291
New York, N. Y.[13]	1919	4,000,000	4,068	(5)	22,491	
Oakland, Calif	1929	446,000	3,030	(5)	4,489	
Philadelphia, Pa	1901	2,000,000	10,017	80,777	28,283	3,173
Pittsburgh, Pa	1908	1,500,000	[6] 5,456	10,712	15,851	
Portland, Oreg	1935	310,000	2,314	2,659	(5)	
Providence, R. I	1921	287,539	1,062	1,234	7,873	260
Rochester, N. Y	1910	350,000	3,237	18,598	13,689	393
Salt Lake City, Utah	1921	150,000	314	397	1,380	
San Francisco, Calif	1916	700,000	[6] 6,617	11,187	12,433	
Springfield, Mass	1925	175,000	3,116	(5)	6,569	555
St. Louis, Mo	1912	900,000	1,490	5,519	7,491	
St. Paul, Minn	1913	288,737	1,264	(5)	8,324	(5)
Tampa, Fla	1938	101,161	31			
Washington, D. C	1932	600,000	2,489	6,951	5,503	

NONMEMBERS

All cities			22,876	$17,549	$23,864	$1,382
Atlanta, Ga	1924	295,500	3,056	7,938	7,225	(5)
Dayton, Ohio	1913	234,000	4,475	1,040	3,172	(5)
Erie, Pa	1935	135,000	269	300	1,200	(5)
Kansas City, Mo	1910	15,000	8,849	[14] 3,000	4,500	(5)
Little Rock, Ark	1938	135,000	99	(5)	821	6
Newark, N. J	1920	600,000	4,473	5,272	4,117	1,376
Reading, Pa	1925	250,000	301	(5)	639	(5)
Seattle, Wash	1939	406,000	1,107		2,190	(5)
Toledo, Ohio	1924	300,000	200			(5)
Greensboro, N. C	1939	126,000	17			(5)
Greenville, S. C	1939	63,774	30		(5)	(5)

[6] Includes some reopened or recurrent cases.

[1] Where no amount is reported and no note reference is given, no fees or commissions were paid.
[2] Erie County.
[3] $6,583 represents actual collections; $141,411 "workmen's compensation awards" obtained, which are payable over a period of time.
[4] Apr. 1, 1939, to Apr. 1, 1940.
[5] No data.
[6] Legal Aid Bureau.
[7] Jewish Social Service Bureau.
[8] Including release from garnishments.
[9] Dane County.
[10] Oct. 1, 1938, to Sept. 30, 1939.
[11] Legal Aid Society.
[12] Manhattan, Bronx, and Kings.
[13] National Desertion Bureau.
[14] Not direct through office.

The work of the public or voluntary defenders is recorded in table 2. Concerning fees and commissions paid in connection with these activities, New York, Omaha, and the city of Los Angeles were reported as giving no data, and Los Angeles County was reported as

stating that records were not available. For the other 12 jurisdictions, it was reported that no fees nor commissions were paid.

TABLE 2.—*Work of Public or Voluntary Defenders, 1939*

City	Year association established	Population	New cases handled	Gross cost of operation
All cities			[6] 62,506	$115,192
Boston, Mass	1935	1,500,000	480	5,502
Fairfield County, Conn	1917	386,702	[1] 125	990
Cincinnati, Ohio	1928	485,500	1,153	1,500
Chicago, Ill	1930	3,800,000	1,058	[2] 28,720
Columbus, Ohio	1914	300,000	5,192	4,380
Hartford County, Conn	1917	500,000	[1] 167	[3]
Los Angeles:				
City	1915	1,238,048	43,258	[3]
County	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
New York, N. Y.[4]	1917	1,500,000	4,367	[3]
Oakland, Calif	1927	531,000	[1] 619	13,500
Omaha, Nebr	1913	[5] 250,000	[3]	6,700
Philadelphia, Pa	1934	2,000,000	2,000	20,000
Pittsburgh, Pa	1930	1,500,000	[6] 1,074	6,000
San Diego, Calif., Public Attorney	1919	300,000	1,500	[7] 2,600
San Francisco, Calif	1921	730,000	1,263	19,000
St. Louis, Mo	1938	850,000	250	6,300

[1] Criminal only.
[2] Yearly budget.
[3] No data.
[4] Criminal Courts Branch—formerly the Voluntary Defenders' Committee.
[5] Douglas County.
[6] Includes some reopened cases.
[7] Budget of $2,600 does not include rent of quarters valued at $400 per year.

PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, FEBRUARY 1941 [1]

THE activities of the public employment offices during February continued to reflect the increasing labor needs of the expanding defense program. Although the shorter work month resulted in a 5-percent decline in the number of placements to 345,000, the daily rate of placements was 8 percent higher than in January. Moreover, placements were 70 percent higher than in February 1940 and 90 percent higher than in February 1939. Total placements in January and February 1941 were 67 percent higher than during the corresponding 2-month period of 1940.

As in January 1941, more than two-thirds of the jobs filled in February were expected to last longer than a month, in contrast to 54 percent in February 1940. Despite the sharp decline in applications for work, registrants in active files of public employment offices totaled 5,100,000, or practically the same as on January 31, 1941.

Despite the decline in placements for the country as a whole, 18 States reported making more placements in February than in January. Outstanding gains were reported by Louisiana, Missouri, New Mexico, and North Carolina. Sharp declines in Florida and South Carolina reflected the curtailment of large-scale placements on military projects in those States. Practically all States filled more jobs this February than last, however, with exceptional gains shown for Missouri, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Virginia, and Wyoming, where placements were from 3 to 6 times as great as those made last February. Supplementary placements declined 27 percent from January but were nearly 3 times as large as in February 1940.

Approximately 1,400,000 applications for jobs were received in February, a decline of 25 percent from January. The number of registrants in State active files totaled 5,100,000; this was practically the same number as on January 31, but fewer than in any February since the establishment of the United States Employment Service. In Oklahoma and Washington, the number of job seekers were 49 percent and 58 percent lower than the volume of February 1940, and

[1] Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Empoyment Security, Social Security Board.

reductions of 30 percent or more were shown in Alabama, Arkansas, Hawaii, Maryland, Michigan, South Carolina, Vermont, and Wyoming. Of the 12 States having greater numbers of registrants this February than last, Idaho, Illinois, Louisiana, and Massachusetts each showed the largest increases of 25 percent or more.

Of the total placements completed by public employment offices, 217,000 were filled by men and 128,000 by women. Placements of men doubled those made in February 1940, and placements of women showed an increase of one-third. These respective increases were equivalent to those shown in the previous month, and the sharper increase noted in male placements partly reflects the large-scale expansion in construction placements resulting from the needs of the defense program. Placements of men were higher than February 1940 in all but 7 States and for women in all but 4. Job placements of men were from 3 to 9 times as numerous as in February 1940 in Arkansas, Florida, Louisiana, Missouri, New Mexico, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Virginia, and Wyoming. In 13 other States, placements of men more than doubled those made in February of last year. The volume of women's placements more than doubled in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, and increases of more than 50 percent over February 1940 were shown for 12 other States. Placements of women exceeded those of men in Delaware, the District of Columbia, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and South Dakota, primarily reflecting the large volume of service placements in these States. Three-fourths of the jobs filled by men and more than half of the jobs filled by women were expected to last longer than a month.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Placement Activities of Public Employment Services, February 1941*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Mar. 22, 1941]

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		January 1941	February 1940	February 1939
Total complete placements	344,576	−5.1	+69.5	+90.1
Regular	238,379	−2.1	+117.1	+116.3
Temporary	106,197	−11.3	+13.6	+49.5
Supplementary placements	67,132	−27.4	+170.8	+117.8
Total applications	1,371,429	−24.9	+5.2	+31.0
Active file	5,095,429	[1]	−13.9	−28.0

[1] Increase of less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Altogether, 985,000 applications were filed by men, a 6-percent increase over February 1940, while the 386,000 filed by women was an increase of about 5 percent. The increases probably reflect more intensive recruitment efforts of the public employment offices. At the end of February, the active file of men was 16 percent lower than

in February 1940, while the number of woman registrants was 7 percent lower. The number of male job seekers registered this February was lower in all except 10 States and in all except 15 for woman registrants.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, February 1941*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Mar. 22, 1941]

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		January 1941	February 1940	February 1939
Total complete placements	11,149	−3.6	+64.9	+34.6
Regular	6,532	−6.6	(1)	(1)
Temporary	4,617	+1.0	(1)	(1)
Total applications	36,171	−22.9	+17.4	+29.0
Active file	238,400	+1.3	−6.4	−31.6

[1] Total veteran placements by duration not reported prior to 1941.

TABLE 3.—*Activities of Public Employment Services, All Registrants, by States, February 1941*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Mar. 22, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements						Supplementary placements	Total applications received		Active file	
	February 1941				January–February 1941						
	Number	Percent of change from—		Regular, over 1 month	Number	Percent of change from January–February 1940		Number	Percent of change from January 1941	As of Feb. 28, 1941	Percent of change from Feb. 29, 1940
		January 1941	February 1940								
Total	344,576	−5.1	+69.5	238,379	707,739	+66.8	67,132	1,371,429	−24.9	5,095,429	−13.9
Region I:											
Connecticut	7,269	+3.9	+98.3	5,758	14,265	+85.7	63	23,263	−18.3	57,323	−29.7
Maine	1,975	+9.4	+56.7	1,526	3,780	+47.0	6	9,372	−15.0	33,793	−2.8
Massachusetts	6,268	+2.6	+112.1	5,154	12,377	+85.3	69	47,910	−20.1	217,186	+26.1
N. Hampshire	1,725	+3.7	+9.8	1,428	3,388	+1.7	170	5,236	−36.5	16,263	−14.1
Rhode Island	1,708	+.2	+222.9	1,456	3,412	+176.9	3	10,094	+2.5	35,991	−22.5
Vermont	758	−14.2	+20.5	433	1,641	+34.5	9	2,584	−15.5	12,380	−34.1
Region II:											
New York	32,762	−3.3	+75.4	17,994	66,637	+74.7	1,802	145,446	−28.0	507,110	−17.4
Region III:											
Delaware	1,237	+2.6	+87.1	787	2,442	+66.7	13	3,717	−28.1	11,563	−26.7
New Jersey	11,356	−8.9	+25.8	7,443	23,822	+36.5	24	44,019	−35.2	207,790	−28.8
Pennsylvania	13,619	−9.9	+52.5	10,085	28,736	+54.8	868	119,223	−16.1	388,476	−7.8
Region IV:											
Dist. of Col.	4,266	−14.2	+68.9	2,002	9,238	+61.0	1	12,066	−29.6	29,431	−25.5
Maryland	4,384	−6.4	+84.4	3,143	9,068	+72.9	2	19,923	−14.4	50,606	−32.2
N. Carolina	29,620	+52.6	+482.6	27,745	49,024	+382.3	7,854	45,745	−31.9	105,463	+.5
Virginia	9,807	+35.1	+196.1	7,917	17,066	+140.6	95	20,714	−4.8	47,488	−20.7
West Virginia	3,268	+22.3	+60.5	2,401	5,940	+48.8	298	18,731	−17.6	65,624	−15.2
Region V:											
Kentucky	2,567	−26.1	+63.2	1,888	6,042	+91.9	136	19,745	−26.2	92,297	+4.2
Michigan	9,549	−4.1	+35.8	6,561	19,506	+35.8	173	64,638	−18.9	148,123	−31.2
Ohio	15,846	−6.6	+67.2	9,747	32,803	+65.2	330	66,421	−18.7	310,134	+8.4
Region VI:											
Illinois	16,406	−3.7	+61.0	10,373	33,438	+48.9	833	74,279	−18.4	231,971	+29.2
Indiana	7,979	−16.6	+42.3	5,480	17,550	+53.3	503	31,938	−31.8	167,506	−6.4
Wisconsin	6,029	−11.4	+38.8	3,870	12,838	+38.8	309	23,413	−35.9	115,818	−27.6
Region VII:											
Alabama	3,120	−17.3	+8.8	2,276	6,893	+16.3	154	18,781	−25.5	93,640	−33.0
Florida	6,885	−37.9	+144.4	5,416	17,976	+167.6	102	23,845	−15.7	78,964	+22.0
Georgia	6,489	−21.0	+6.3	4,446	14,705	+24.8	71	22,750	−28.2	133,192	−27.0
Mississippi	2,261	−.5	−2.9	1,854	4,533	−9.3	123	13,500	−31.8	58,388	−8.0
South Carolina	6,082	−50.4	+115.8	5,307	18,340	+272.8	156	12,267	−47.5	45,779	−35.6
Tennessee	6,726	−19.4	+108.9	5,489	15,071	+120.3	8,155	18,691	−25.0	120,289	−15.3
Region VIII:											
Iowa	5,042	+3.4	+11.2	2,891	9,916	+.4	765	16,861	−35.5	76,316	−23.7
Minnesota	3,911	−2.7	+25.3	2,368	7,930	+22.0	170	23,499	−28.6	111,017	−25.7
Nebraska	1,497	−4.8	+14.5	858	3,069	+7.5	29	9,568	−21.3	48,086	+9.5
North Dakota	1,059	−25.3	+27.7	602	2,477	+36.6	21	5,820	−11.6	30,687	+3.6
South Dakota	734	−17.9	+27.0	334	1,628	+23.9	17	3,344	−25.7	23,300	−26.4
Region IX:											
Arkansas	4,741	−25.4	+167.1	2,088	11,100	+172.4	4,767	10,041	−36.3	40,193	−30.0
Kansas	4,528	−22.3	+99.7	2,253	10,359	+120.4	183	18,980	−17.6	61,129	+1.9
Missouri	17,172	+48.0	+237.8	15,117	28,771	+174.9	495	48,667	−26.6	196,149	+2.9
Oklahoma	3,013	+4.0	+2.7	1,438	5,910	−.3	760	19,379	−18.4	46,680	−48.6
Region X:											
Louisiana	7,709	+48.4	+109.4	6,733	12,903	+74.6	6,898	30,572	−6.4	121,763	+25.4
New Mexico	1,919	+89.6	+128.4	1,646	2,931	+56.4	326	6,874	−19.9	30,390	−13.5
Texas	30,269	−24.2	+23.8	16,880	70,206	+38.3	17,220	62,708	−39.8	247,704	−7.9
Region XI:											
Arizona	2,308	−8.3	+.4	1,449	4,824	−13.1	5,931	5,268	−28.5	19,000	−25.3
Colorado	1,987	−21.6	−4.7	1,133	4,520	+5.0	58	14,759	−19.5	62,364	−6.4
Idaho	1,161	+5.2	+4.6	710	2,264	+11.1	168	7,438	−29.8	20,829	+30.1
Montana	761	+11.2	+18.7	510	1,445	+13.2	139	5,231	−21.2	24,012	−22.9
Utah	916	−36.9	+83.6	525	2,367	+50.0	52	6,477	−29.6	22,858	−12.3
Wyoming	1,713	−1.9	+459.8	1,567	3,460	+383.2	2	2,817	−52.0	7,759	−31.8
Region XII:											
California	22,034	−8.2	+50.7	13,062	46,031	+54.8	3,891	107,398	−24.2	412,962	−24.8
Nevada	948	+15.5	+35.0	570	1,769	+13.7	97	2,287	−26.5	6,162	−7.2
Oregon	5,456	−1.2	+105.3	3,824	10,979	+68.2	908	18,091	−22.4	41,644	−17.8
Washington	4,317	−12.3	−1.0	2,887	9,240	+4.2	1,878	24,186	−30.8	52,953	−57.8
Territories:											
Alaska	478	+13.5	+19.2	244	899	+4.6	17	778	−15.8	1,977	−22.9
Hawaii	942	−25.7	+49.5	711	2,210	+53.8	18	2,075	−1.9	6,907	−33.1

TABLE 4.—*Activities of Public Employment Services, Veterans, by States, February 1941*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Mar. 22, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements			Total applications received	Active file		
	Number	Percent of change[1] from—			As of Feb. 28, 1941	Percent of change from—	
		January 1941	February 1940			Jan. 31, 1941	Feb. 29, 1940
Total	11,149	−3.6	+64.9	56,171	238,400	+1.3	−6.4
Region I:							
Connecticut	217	−34.2	−3.6	1,024	2,958	+5.3	−24.3
Maine	73	+2.8	----------	472	1,923	+1.5	+17.2
Massachusetts	131	+10.1	+107.9	2,861	12,163	+18.9	+90.1
New Hampshire	70	−9.1	+6.1	243	1,043	+1.8	+20.3
Rhode Island	53	−26.4	----------	364	1,456	+54.7	+33.6
Vermont	21	----------	----------	117	588	+3.3	−31.6
Region II:							
New York	528	−18.8	+26.9	2,481	15,899	−2.0	−10.8
Region III:							
Delaware	22	----------	----------	152	479	+1.9	−36.5
New Jersey	196	−8.8	+22.5	1,536	8,272	+9.1	−3.9
Pennsylvania	309	−12.0	+33.8	6,356	20,027	+6.8	+20.4
Region IV:							
District of Columbia	122	−53.8	+67.1	632	1,873	−1.2	−15.8
Maryland	132	−27.9	+45.0	669	1,868	+1.2	−43.7
North Carolina	411	+28.0	+248.3	1,119	3,166	−3.4	+27.5
Virginia	217	+24.0	+106.7	464	1,110	−11.0	−29.5
West Virginia	79	----------	----------	629	3,143	−4.0	−21.4
Region V:							
Kentucky	112	−1.8	----------	752	3,877	+2.6	+6.2
Michigan	405	+3.6	+44.1	3,741	9,415	+15.3	−15.0
Ohio	418	+.2	+53.7	2,603	16,756	+1.2	+27.6
Region VI:							
Illinois	1,299	+159.3	+379.3	4,058	11,817	+5.0	+140.2
Indiana	164	−41.4	+65.6	1,205	7,694	+2.8	−20.5
Wisconsin	195	−7.6	+59.8	1,015	8,472	+4.6	−7.1
Region VII:							
Alabama	87	−9.4	−31.5	695	3,860	+3.4	−22.0
Florida	169	−20.6	+116.7	1,245	3,704	+18.8	+26.2
Georgia	125	−15.5	−26.9	609	3,830	−3.0	−30.3
Mississippi	44	----------	----------	344	1,485	−8.7	−4.5
South Carolina	206	−48.4	+227.0	348	1,370	−3.2	−44.2
Tennessee	120	−22.1	+46.3	648	4,660	+6.8	−23.8
Region VIII:							
Iowa	374	−17.2	−12.5	863	4,808	−5.0	−18.5
Minnesota	188	+39.2	+14.6	1,038	6,942	−.4	−32.0
Nebraska	55	+5.8	----------	519	2,825	+1.0	+37.7
North Dakota	26	----------	----------	203	1,327	+15.5	−2.2
South Dakota	16	----------	----------	172	1,292	−.5	−28.3
Region IX:							
Arkansas	166	−35.4	----------	411	1,914	+1.8	−30.4
Kansas	162	−46.5	+95.2	741	3,390	−8.9	−3.6
Missouri	859	+48.1	+450.6	2,097	9,499	−9.0	−.3
Oklahoma	83	−19.4	−41.5	942	2,870	+7.1	−52.1
Region X:							
Louisiana	132	+21.1	+123.7	827	3,986	+5.2	+36.1
New Mexico	123	----------	----------	313	1,694	+.2	−6.2
Texas	1,057	−25.0	+31.1	1,760	8,170	−5.3	−6.7
Region XI:							
Arizona	115	−.9	+43.8	269	1,169	−7.7	−13.8
Colorado	52	−34.2	−68.5	820	2,974	+8.8	−17.1
Idaho	97	+29.3	+36.6	454	1,252	+1.2	+101.9
Montana	45	----------	----------	301	1,475	+3.1	−16.0
Utah	48	----------	----------	226	1,242	+3.4	−13.0
Wyoming	162	+11.7	----------	148	466	+.2	−28.1
Region XII:							
California	983	−8.2	+31.6	5,308	21,632	−7.8	−30.1
Nevada	55	----------	−6.8	118	315	−4.0	−23.9
Oregon	284	−26.2	+79.7	965	2,925	−2.6	+6.3
Washington	191	−15.5	+7.3	1,205	2,882	−30.6	−57.8
Territories:							
Alaska	22	----------	----------	50	120	−7.7	−33.7
Hawaii	29	----------	----------	39	323	−6.6	−14.8

[1] Where less than 50 veteran placements were involved in either period the percentage change was not computed.

UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS, FEBRUARY 1941 [1]

IN EACH February of the past 3 years compensable claims and payments have been higher than in January. This year the pattern has been altered, reflecting the increasing influence of the defense program on the volume of employment. Claims for unemployment compensation benefits were filed at a lower daily rate than in January. The failure of claim receipts to increase this year appears to be attributable to the reemployment during February of many claimants who were filing claims in January. As a result, benefit payments declined 12 percent to $34,600,000, which was 22 percent lower than February 1940. An average of 806,000 individuals received benefit payments during the month, a 2-percent decline from January. In February 1940, an average of 985,000 drew benefits. A minimum of 910,000 workers received at least one payment during February.

There was a 12-percent decline in compensable continued-claim [2] receipts in February. Last year, such claims increased 5 percent from January to February in spite of the fewer number of working days in February. Decreases in total continued claims were reported by 44 jurisdictions; the 4,000,000 claims received were 30 percent lower than in February 1940. The sharpest reduction of 35 percent occurred in New Hampshire, where employment in the shoe industry is at its seasonal peak, and declines in excess of 25 percent were shown by Illinois, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, and Wisconsin. Increased claim receipts, on the other hand, were noted in 7 States—Alaska, Arkansas, Delaware, Hawaii, Montana, North Dakota, and Wyoming. As expected, continued claims filed to meet waiting-period requirements declined more sharply than did compensable claims, as a result of the slackening in the filing of claims initiating new benefit years.

Partly because of the concentration of defense contracts in the eastern part of the country, there was a rather distinct geographic pattern with respect to changes in benefit disbursements. All but 3 States in this area reported reduced benefit payments in February, whereas only 6 States west of the Mississippi showed declines from January payments.

All but 4 of the 21 States reporting fewer benefit recipients in February were located in the eastern half of the country, and included 10 of the leading industrial States. The sharpest reductions occurred in Maine, New Hampshire, and Tennessee, where decreases ranged from 23 to 26 percent. Declines of more than 10 percent were reported

[1] Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

[2] The term, "continued claims," as used by the Bureau of Employment Security, indicates certification that the claimant has completed a waiting-period week or a compensable period (usually a calendar week or 7-day period).

by Florida, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia. Practically all of these States reported employment stimulated by expanding defense activities. On the other hand, more benefit recipients were reported in 30 States, with the largest increase of more than 50 percent shown for Hawaii, Montana, Oregon, and Wyoming. Increases of about 35 percent or more were reported by Alaska, Delaware, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Nebraska, and North Dakota. Every State west of the Mississippi River except Arizona, California, Louisiana, and Texas reported an increased number of beneficiaries as seasonal unemployment in a varied group of industries continued.

Benefit payments during the first 2 months of 1941 totaled nearly $74,000,000, or 13 percent less than in the corresponding period of 1940. Reductions in excess of 40 percent were shown for Connecticut, Hawaii, Maryland, Rhode Island, and Wyoming. The only States reporting higher disbursements were California, the District of Columbia, Idaho, Louisiana, Minnesota, Nevada, North Dakota, Oregon, and South Dakota. Of the 31 States which have had 2 full months of benefit payment experience in the last 3 years, 20 States paid less benefits in January-February 1941 than in any corresponding period. On the other hand, California, the District of Columbia, and Minnesota paid more in the first 2 months of this year than in any other corresponding period. Modifications of benefit provisions have been responsible for some of these increases.

Unemployed workers received compensation for approximately 3,300,000 weeks of unemployment during February, of which almost 3,000,000, or 91 percent, represented weeks of total unemployment. The number of weeks of partial and part-total unemployment compensated in February totaled more than 279,000, a decrease of 29 percent from January. Decreases were shown in 31 of the 47 States which issue such payments. In only 2 agencies—Hawaii and Illinois—was as much as one-fifth or more of all weeks compensated for partial and part-total unemployment.

Continued Unemployment-Compensation Claims [1] Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, February 1941

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Mar. 22, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Continued claims [1]			Weeks compensated			
	Number	Type		Number	Type of unemployment		
		Waiting period	Compensable		Total	Partial and part-total combined [2]	Partial only [3]
Total	4,046,747	757,624	3,289,123	3,261,454	2,982,042	279,412	----
Region I:							
Connecticut	46,568	13,335	33,233	33,154	30,798	2,356	(5)
Maine	23,951	2,288	21,663	22,178	18,187	3,991	2,383
Massachusetts	174,862	20,925	153,937	154,289	140,234	14,055	13,055
New Hampshire	12,454	1,787	10,667	10,931	8,893	2,038	(5)
Rhode Island	26,976	2,248	24,728	24,728	21,067	3,661	(5)
Vermont	11,122	2,309	8,813	8,738	8,204	534	390
Region II:							
New York	606,434	96,605	509,829	519,496	519,496	(5)	(5)
Region III:							
Delaware	12,514	2,106	10,408	10,301	8,253	2,048	1,888
New Jersey	168,719	39,473	129,246	129,454	129,454	(5)	(5)
Pennsylvania	319,297	91,983	227,314	226,557	226,557	(5)	(5)
Region IV:							
District of Columbia	25,672	3,764	21,908	20,805	19,555	1,250	(5)
Maryland	38,272	3,911	34,361	31,373	27,378	3,995	3,864
North Carolina	61,291	13,331	47,960	47,387	44,370	3,017	2,597
Virginia	34,374	2,829	31,545	30,960	27,462	3,498	2,346
West Virginia	32,657	6,930	25,727	24,917	23,894	[6] 1,023	(5)
Region V:							
Kentucky	21,234	3,887	17,347	33,782	28,238	5,544	(5)
Michigan	122,453	20,411	102,042	101,299	95,058	6,241	(5)
Ohio	209,775	60,021	149,754	149,723	130,066	19,657	(5)
Region VI:							
Illinois	225,842	25,685	200,157	208,032	158,672	49,360	34,992
Indiana	77,826	15,788	62,038	61,878	52,198	9,680	(5)
Wisconsin	47,714	15,142	32,572	32,600	29,413	3,187	1,679
Region VII:							
Alabama	54,221	13,276	40,945	39,738	36,705	3,033	801
Florida	36,534	7,928	28,606	28,271	23,454	4,817	(5)
Georgia	50,555	12,245	38,310	37,511	35,228	2,283	1,420
Mississippi	28,614	4,118	24,496	23,520	21,835	1,685	952
South Carolina	24,546	5,223	19,323	18,843	16,159	2,684	1,200
Tennessee	68,547	12,437	56,110	47,948	44,127	3,821	1,485
Region VIII:							
Iowa	72,180	20,286	51,894	51,030	45,387	5,643	1,247
Minnesota	130,378	18,554	111,824	109,373	102,789	6,584	(5)
Nebraska	29,591	4,007	25,584	25,197	22,961	2,236	1,408
North Dakota	12,560	2,072	10,488	9,241	8,436	805	546
South Dakota	7,681	756	6,925	6,921	6,616	305	(5)
Region IX:							
Arkansas	44,537	10,644	33,893	33,893	31,690	2,203	88
Kansas	36,383	12,373	24,010	23,902	21,055	2,847	1,886
Missouri	91,820	30,299	61,521	64,077	57,033	7,044	1,853
Oklahoma	43,739	10,646	33,093	32,398	27,088	5,310	875
Region X:							
Louisiana	67,698	11,996	55,702	55,449	50,407	5,042	(5)
New Mexico	13,640	2,022	11,618	11,071	10,455	616	251
Texas	111,773	13,783	97,990	72,072	62,140	9,932	(5)
Region XI:							
Arizona	10,671	2,593	8,078	8,041	7,606	435	25
Colorado	37,539	5,239	32,300	31,136	28,519	2,617	1,272
Idaho	31,967	4,807	27,160	27,174	25,868	1,306	(5)
Montana	46,935	5,699	41,236	39,540	39,540	(5)	(5)
Utah	17,302	1,826	15,476	15,480	13,896	1,584	319
Wyoming	11,263	2,338	8,925	8,957	7,747	1,210	638
Region XII:							
California	498,295	63,383	434,912	432,286	375,280	57,006	40,942
Nevada	12,671	1,349	11,322	10,713	9,691	1,022	359
Oregon	57,112	15,568	41,544	35,020	31,700	3,320	2,209
Washington	88,189	14,141	74,048	74,134	66,197	7,937	(5)
Territories:							
Alaska	5,270	1,840	3,430	3,025	2,832	193	0
Hawaii	4,529	1,418	3,111	2,911	2,154	757	755

See footnotes at end of table.

Continued Unemployment-Compensation Claims [1] *Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, February 1941*—Continued

]Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Mar. 22, 1941]

Social Security Board region and State	Benefits paid				Month and year benefits first payable	Amount of benefits since first payable [4]
	Amount [3]	Type of unemployment				
		Total	Partial and part-total combined [2]	Partial only [2]		
Total	$34,610,683	$32,687,943	$1,898,161			$1,417,812,975
Region I:						
Connecticut	337,391	322,114	14,933	(5)	January 1938	23,169,111
Maine	148,615	124,685	23,930	$14,535	do	11,392,741
Massachusetts	1,588,288	1,512,044	74,884	68,351	do	81,495,716
New Hampshire	92,453	82,458	9,995	(5)	do	6,795,148
Rhode Island	260,409	242,390	18,019	(5)	do	23,491,923
Vermont	84,553	81,400	3,106	2,058	do	2,483,569
Region II:						
New York	6,187,529	6,187,529	(2)	(2)	do	280,628,573
Region III:						
Delaware	82,253	70,425	11,711	10,719	January 1939	1,697,273
New Jersey	1,214,257	1,214,257	(2)	(2)	do	33,343,506
Pennsylvania	2,435,032	2,435,032	(2)	(2)	January 1938	175,792,052
Region IV:						
District of Columbia	251,313	236,565	14,158	(5)	do	5,690,673
Maryland	268,118	245,884	22,210	21,348	do	23,173,150
North Carolina	215,988	206,747	9,146	7,183	do	17,684,746
Virginia	248,271	227,557	20,583	13,346	do	16,575,066
West Virginia	213,697	203,698	9,999	(5)	do	20,675,827
Region V:						
Kentucky	243,374	216,887	25,855	(5)	January 1939	10,169,978
Michigan	1,153,275	1,118,635	34,640	(5)	July 1938	106,560,274
Ohio	1,424,844	1,322,644	96,176	(5)	January 1939	51,467,785
Region VI:						
Illinois	2,496,167	2,125,921	363,334	233,711	July 1939	66,063,487
Indiana	613,592	558,829	54,382	(5)	April 1938	37,201,118
Wisconsin	338,548	317,643	20,905	9,649	July 1936	20,322,182
Region VII:						
Alabama	265,655	249,811	15,630	3,332	January 1938	17,747,278
Florida	278,986	249,106	29,880	(5)	January 1939	10,495,288
Georgia	240,075	231,556	8,519	5,378	do	8,158,303
Mississippi	152,569	143,396	9,136	5,107	April 1938	5,353,131
South Carolina	122,279	110,014	12,211	5,111	July 1938	5,503,696
Tennessee	344,305	327,018	17,287	5,756	January 1938	17,705,217
Region VIII:						
Iowa	460,740	427,315	32,823	6,062	July 1938	12,623,756
Minnesota	1,141,049	1,087,762	52,945	(5)	January 1938	27,625,772
Nebraska	230,570	213,998	16,521	10,328	January 1939	3,574,520
North Dakota	89,285	82,710	6,438	4,239	do	1,327,317
South Dakota	50,730	48,882	1,848	(5)	do	867,295
Region IX:						
Arkansas	199,126	190,664	8,431	404	do	5,175,424
Kansas	208,038	189,939	18,099	11,285	do	4,705,905
Missouri	540,622	504,482	36,121	7,320	do	13,794,014
Oklahoma	286,246	253,982	32,264	3,861	December 1938	8,592,652
Region X:						
Louisiana	492,329	456,784	34,895	(5)	January 1938	17,740,936
New Mexico	96,552	91,926	4,626	1,762	December 1938	2,642,026
Texas	546,773	496,743	49,975	(5)	January 1938	31,151,102
Region XI:						
Arizona	85,152	81,831	3,321	164	do	4,913,350
Colorado	306,591	286,243	20,218	9,446	January 1939	8,243,339
Idaho	314,596	304,101	10,483	(5)	September 1938	5,133,926
Montana	437,567	437,567	(2)	(2)	July 1939	4,671,235
Utah	169,645	158,792	10,853	2,247	January 1938	6,189,891
Wyoming	115,836	104,640	11,196	5,029	January 1939	2,565,500
Region XII:						
California	6,005,199	5,484,853	514,922	361,473	January 1938	139,484,482
Nevada	139,791	129,041	10,750	3,514	January 1939	2,206,424
Oregon	421,442	394,322	26,956	17,300	January 1938	14,809,510
Washington	909,676	841,619	68,057	(5)	January 1939	17,393,616
Territories:						
Alaska	42,969	40,910	2,059	0	do	949,075
Hawaii	18,323	14,592	3,731	3,722	do	595,097

[1] I. e., certification that the claimant has completed a waiting-period week or a compensable period (usually a calendar week or 7-day period).

[2] Benefits for partial and part-total unemployment are not provided by State law in Montana, New York, and Pennsylvania. In New Jersey provision for such payments is not effective until Apr. 1, 1941.

[3] Includes supplemental payments, not classified by type of unemployment.

[4] Adjusted to exclude returned and voided benefit checks except for February 1941.

[5] Data for partial unemployment included with data for part-total unemployment.

[6] Payments for part-total and partial unemployment are made for benefit periods of 1 quarter. The number of weeks represented by each such payment is determined by dividing the amount paid by the claimant's benefit rate for total unemployment.

FAMILY ENDOWMENT PROPOSED IN VICTORIA

IN November 1940 a select committee submitted to the Parliament of Victoria a recommendation for the establishment of a system of child endowment providing allowances for children under 14 years of age in large families. The proposed grants would begin with the fourth child, in accordance with the following weekly scale.[1]

	Allowance for child	*Total for family*
Fourth child	4s.	4s.
Fifth child	5s.	9s.
Sixth child	6s.	15s.
Seventh child	7s.	22s.
Eighth child	8s.	30s.
Each additional child	8s.	

It was also recommended that (1) a child endowment commission be appointed; (2) power be given to raise, in certain cases, the age limit of children for whom allowances are payable from 14 to 16 years; (3) no statutory income limits to be fixed but the commissioner to be given discretionary power; and (4) the allowances to be paid to employees at the same time they receive their wages and to other allocatees direct from the office of the commissioner.

Regarding the matter of cost, the committee states that it is not able to fix the exact amount, but based on the number of children under 14 years of age as shown in the 1933 census and eliminating those for whom the plan does not provide, the annual expenditure would, it is estimated, not exceed £450,000.

[1] New South Wales Industrial Gazette (Sydney), December 1940.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND DISEASES IN BRITISH FACTORIES, 1939

THE industrial-accident and disease records in British factories in 1939 reflect to a certain extent the increased war effort. The annual report of the senior medical inspector of factories for that year [1] states that there was an increase of 17 percent in fatal industrial accidents and of 7 percent in nonfatal accidents. However, in view of the increased employment brought about by the extension of the war industries, it is said that the increase in nonfatal accidents is not greater than the increase in man-hours worked.

Industrial Accidents

An increase in accidents is to be expected in wartime, the report states, for the following reasons: Increase in the number of workers, many of whom have lost touch through unemployment or have changed their employment and are thus particularly liable to minor accidents; longer hours with the added risk resulting from fatigue and from persons' working under mental stress as a result of the war; a general neglect of safety precautions in the patriotic endeavor to get work done quickly, and lack of supervision of new workers owing to a scarcity of supervisory staff; the shift of workers from relatively safe to more hazardous industries; use of old machines which may have been out of use for some years and may not be properly safeguarded; and special work in connection with the black-out.

Comparison of accidents for 6-month periods before and after the war drive of 1939 shows that the increase in nonfatal accidents was not great. There was a more striking increase in fatal accidents. The number of accidents occurring in these periods is shown in the accompanying statement.

	Nonfatal accidents	*Fatal accidents*
March–August 1938	85, 319	457
March–August 1939	93, 099	489
Percent of increase	9	7
September 1938–February 1940	92, 563	482
September 1939–February 1940	104, 571	685
Percent of increase	13	42

[1] Great Britain. Ministry of Labor and National Service. Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for the Year 1939. London 1941. (Cmd. 6251.)

The number of fatalities in September 1939 showed that the nation had not realized that war was inevitable and that in spite of governmental warnings little effort had been made to black out the factories, with the result that many fatalities occurred in the rush to get the black-out work done. The 129 fatalities occurring in that month is said to have been the highest on record for any month.

An analysis of accidents occurring in the first 3 months of the war, made by the Sheffield Area Industrial Safety Committee and comparing September to November 1939 with the same months in 1938, showed that the aggregate frequency rate increased 15.8 percent, while the severity rate fell by 6.8 percent. The average time lost per injured person fell from 22½ days in 1938 to 18 days in 1939, showing, it is said, that although the new and unskilled labor was meeting with an increased number of accidents these were largely minor injuries.

The records show an encouraging decrease in accidents to young persons, amounting for all industries to 2 percent and for the textile industries to 3 percent, in spite of a 19-percent increase in accidents to all employed in these industries. The principal accident increases, as would be expected, occurred in those industries chiefly concerned with war production. "Metal extracting, refining, and conversion has shown an increase of 22 percent in fatalities and of 16 percent in nonfatal accidents, and aircraft production an increase of 20 percent in fatal and nonfatal combined. The rapid erection of war factories, airdromes, etc., is reflected in an increase of 39 percent of fatal and 18 percent of nonfatal accidents in building operations."

Industrial Health

The failure of factory management to act on advice on the preparation necessary for war in many instances resulted in poor lighting and ventilation in factories which were hastily blacked out. Many employers found that work with artificial light during the day was affecting both workers and output adversely, and the attempt has since been made, therefore, to keep up the supply of natural light as far as possible. An attempt has been made, also, to provide proper ventilation which suffered in the general rush to screen lights. With special attention given to these problems by employers and the Ministry of Home Security, the main difficulties concerned with lighting and ventilation have been overcome.

The first months of the war affected the health of the workers in British industry. The adoption of precautionary measures necessary for safety resulted in more frequent accidents from gases and fumes as a result of the interference with normal ventilation, although prior to this time the number of such accidents was below that of previous years. The war interrupted the improvements begun under the

Factories Act, 1937, but the report states that it would be premature to give facts as to the effects of war conditions on the general health of the workers. Workers in factories, as elsewhere, in the early days of the war experienced a feeling of mental tension caused by fear of air raids, and this strain was augmented by the black-out because it interfered with ventilation, increased the risk of gassing in various occupations, raised the temperature of workplaces (especially in foundries) to an uncomfortable level, and deprived the workers of the advantages of daylight.

Industrial Poisoning and Disease

Although the number of cases of gassing in the last quarter of the year was approximately double the number reported in any previous quarter, the number of cases of industrial diseases was less than one-fourth of the total for the entire year—112 for the quarter as compared with 506 for the year. This was especially apparent for lead poisoning, of which 21 cases were reported in the last quarter, and 109 in the whole year. In spite of an increase of 13 cases of lead poisoning in 1939, the number of cases remained at a low level and there were only 6 deaths from this cause as compared with 19 the preceding year. The number of reported cases of chrome ulceration rose from 115 in 1938 to 159 in 1939, the increase in the number arising from chrome plating and anodic oxidation. In the latter cases all but 3 of the 40 cases affected the nasal septum, showing the importance of adequate locally applied exhaust ventilation.

The accompanying table shows the number of cases of industrial poisoning and disease in British factories in specified years.

Inhalation of fumes and gases was responsible for 184 cases with 11 deaths, as compared with 190 cases and 27 deaths in the preceding year. The largest number of cases was caused by the inhalation of carbon monoxide which accounted for 84 cases and 5 deaths. There were 29 cases of gassing from chlorine, 10 cases from nickel carbonyl, 9 cases with 2 deaths from trichlorethylene, 9 cases from nitrous fumes, and 6 cases with 2 deaths from sulphuretted hydrogen. The remaining cases were caused by the inhalation of the fumes or gases from a wide variety of agents.

During 1939 there were 439 deaths from silicosis, 430 in 1938, 416 in 1937, and 365 in 1936. These totals include 41 cases occurring in the 4 years in South African gold mines. The largest number of cases in 1939—197—occurred in coal mining, while 33 cases occurred among metal miners (9 in South Africa). Seventy deaths occurred among sandstone masons and 22 in sandstone quarrying and dressing, 51 in the manufacture of pottery, and 19 in metal grinding. The remaining 47 cases occurred in a miscellaneous group of industries. There

were 18 deaths from asbestosis, twice the number for 1938, but this was said to be a chance distribution and had no current significance. Other cases of fibrosis of the lung caused 584 deaths.

Cases of Poisoning and of Industrial Disease Among Factory Workers in Great Britain for Specified Years, 1910 to 1939

Disease	Number reported in—					
	1939	1938	1937	1930	1920	1910
Lead poisoning:						
Cases	109	96	141	265	289	505
Deaths	6	19	19	32	44	38
Mercury poisoning:						
Cases	10	2	7	3	5	10
Deaths						1
Arsenic poisoning:						
Cases	4	3	8	1	3	7
Deaths	2					
Carbon bisulphide poisoning, cases	1					
Aniline poisoning, cases	12	9	10	24		
Chronic benzene poisoning, cases	2		1			
Toxic jaundice:						
Cases		4	4		6	
Deaths		1	1			
Compressed air illness, cases	12					
Anthrax:						
Cases	37	34	23	43	48	51
Deaths	5	5	4	6	11	9
Epithelomatous ulceration:						
Cases	160	165	183	194	45	
Deaths	31	21	31	36	1	
Chrome ulceration, cases	159	115	101	95	126	

Reporting of cases of dermatitis is not required but the number of cases reported voluntarily continues to increase, 2,592 being reported as compared with 2,195 cases in 1938. A large number of causative agents were reported. The largest number of cases was found in chemical manufacture, including explosives and shell filling, in the engineering trades, manufacture and making up of textiles, in the metal trades, among bakers and confectioners, and in dyeing (including calico printing)

FEDERAL MINE-INSPECTION ACT, 1941

EARLY in 1941 Congress passed a law (Public No. 49) the purpose of which was to safeguard the lives and health of persons employed in coal mines. The legislation authorizes the Federal Government, through the Bureau of Mines of the Interior Department, to investigate safety and health conditions in coal mines, the products of which regularly enter commerce, and to make any necessary recommendations.

Basically, the broad purpose of the legislation is to obtain information relating to (1) health and safety conditions in coal mines; (2) causes of accidents involving bodily injury or loss of life; and (3) causes of occupational diseases originating in such mines. The information will serve as a basis for determining the most effective manner in which public funds may be used in safety and accident-prevention work, and for the dissemination of reports, studies, statistics, and other educational materials pertaining to such work. Such data will be used in the preparation of various census reports and also will be transmitted to Congress for use in connection with any required safety legislation.

Although mine operators are obliged under penalty of law to permit representatives of the Government to have access to the mines, the new legislation provides no authority or power for enforcement of any of their recommendations. The legislation requires that inspection of the mines by Federal agencies shall be in cooperation with State mine-inspection agencies. Sponsors of the legislation in Congress pointed out that the law would not prevent accidents nor guarantee the elimination of mine explosions, but with the aid of officials experienced in mine-safety work information would be made available for the purpose of lessening or abolishing the hazards of coal mining.

Further, it was the general opinion of the legislators that the proposed law could not be considered a challenge to mine owners or State mining officials. It was considered, instead, an offer of aid to employers, employees, and State officers—an offer "of all the knowledge that our Federal mining experts may have."

Hereafter, the owner of a mine, the products of which regularly enter commerce or the operations of which substantially affect commerce, must furnish to the Bureau of Mines, upon request, complete and correct data concerning all accidents involving bodily injury or loss of life which occurred during the calendar year in which the request is made or during the preceding calendar year.

The act further requires that detailed reports of information must be compiled and made available to Congress and distributed generally. Authority has been granted for the establishment of an advisory committee composed of six members or less, to exercise "consultative functions." On this committee coal-mine owners and workers are to have equal representation. The members of the advisory committee may be appointed without regard to the civil-service laws. However, all other persons appointed to administer the act must be subject to the Classification Act, and persons appointed as coal-mine inspectors must have had 5 years' practical experience in the mining of coal, and be recognized by the United States Bureau of Mines as having the training or experience of practical mining engineers in the essentials necessary for competent coal-mine inspection.

COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Right of Action Granted to Railroad Employee for Wrongful Discharge

THE United States Supreme Court has held that a railroad employee is not required to exhaust the remedies made available under the Railway Labor Act before instituting an action on an employment contract.[1] An employee, a member of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, brought an action for damages against a railroad company, claiming that he had been discharged contrary to the terms of a contract between the railroad and the union. The railroad contended that the employee's case was prematurely brought because of his failure to exhaust the administrative remedies granted to him by the Railway Labor Act. The Court found, however, that there was nothing in that act which purports to take away from the courts the authority to determine a controversy over a wrongful discharge or to make an administrative finding a prerequisite to filing a suit in court.

The court based its finding on the wording of section 153 (i) of the Railway Labor Act as aemnded in 1934, which provides that disputes "may be referred * * * to the * * * Adjustment Board * * *." It was the intent of Congress, said the highest court, to establish voluntary means for the adjustment of disputes. The machinery

[1] *Moore* v. *Illinois Central Railroad Co.* (61 Sup. Ct. 754).

provided in the Railway Labor Act for settling disputes was not based on a "philosophy of legal compulsion." Therefore, the petitioner in this instance was not required to submit his claim to the Railroad Adjustment Board before instituting suit for wrongful discharge.

Order Requiring Employment of Pullman Conductors Reviewable Only in State Court

An order of the Texas Railroad Commission, which required a Pullman conductor on every train carrying a sleeping car, must be reviewed in a State rather than a Federal court, according to a recent decision of the United States Supreme Court.[2]

In Texas, as in many other States, the Pullman Co. had adopted a practice of eliminating Pullman conductors from certain trains, usually those having only one sleeping car. The car in such case would be in charge of a porter who was subject to the train conductor's control. The State railroad commission, after a hearing, ordered that no sleeping car should be operated unless it was continuously in the charge of an employee having the rank and position of Pullman conductor. Upon the petition of the Pullman Co. a Federal District Court in Texas granted an injunction against the enforcement of this order.

The question involved in the case was whether the order of the commission complied with the Texas law. This question, the court said, should be determined by the Texas courts and not by a Federal court. The last word on the statutory authority of the railroad commission in this case was held to be with the Supreme Court of Texas. In such a situation the reign of law is hardly promoted, Mr. Justice Frankfurter declared, by interference from the Federal courts.

Safety-Appliance Acts Applicable to Intrastate Employee in Pennsylvania

The United States Supreme Court recently held that an injured railroad employee may sue for damages under the Federal Safety Appliance Acts and cannot be forced to accept an award under a State workmen's compensation law unless the statute expressly provides that relief must be obtained from the State compensation act.[3]

In this case an employee engaged in intrastate transportation was injured in Pennsylvania as a result of the alleged failure of the railroad to furnish adequate handbrakes. The employee obtained judgment in the lower court, but it was reversed in the Circuit Court of Appeals, on the ground that the employee could recover only under the State workmen's compensation act.

[2] *Railroad Commission of Texas* v. *Pullman Co.* (61 Sup. Ct. 643).
[3] *Breisch* v. *Central Railroad of New Jersey* (61 Sup. Ct. 862).

The opinion of the Supreme Court was delivered by Mr. Justice Reed, with Mr. Justice Roberts dissenting. Mr. Justice Reed declared that it is clear that an employee injured in intrastate transportation on account of the defective equipment of an interstate railroad is covered under the Federal Safety Appliance Acts. Since the Pennsylvania Supreme Court upheld the view that the State courts are open for redress for such accidents, Mr. Justice Reed declared that such procedure is binding on the Federal courts and therefore should be followed.

Peaceful Picketing Again Upheld

Peaceful picketing again received the protection of the Supreme Court when it ordered the dissolution of an injunction which had been affirmed by the New Jersey Court of Errors and Appeals.[4] The injunction had been approved by the highest court of New Jersey on the grounds that no real labor dispute was involved. The case concerned an employer operating a clothing store who, upon expiration of his contract with the Journeymen Tailors' Union, refused to renew the agreement and discharged his tailor. He then entered into an agreement with a rival union and employed one of its members. The injunction was issued against the first union when it started picketing.

The New Jersey court maintained that previous decisions of the Supreme Court, which held peaceful picketing in labor disputes to be constitutional, did not hold in this case since no real labor dispute was involved. The Supreme Court reversed the decision of the New Jersey court, and held that the injunction should not have been granted, as the controversy between the union and the clothing store did constitute a labor dispute.

Parent Organization Has Power To Determine Jurisdiction of Affiliates

The American Federation of Labor acted within its constitutional power when, in 1933, it adopted the opinion of its Executive Council that teamsters in the brewery industry come under the jurisdiction of the International Teamsters' Union. This decision, rendered by the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia,[5] reversed the lower court's decision which had granted an injunction to the Brewery Workers on the grounds that the American Federation of Labor exceeded its power in transferring beer drivers from the Brewery Workers' Union to the Teamsters' Union. The court of appeals held that the 1933 decision of the Federation did not violate

[4] *Journeymen Tailors' Union* v. *Miller's* (61 Sup. Ct. 732).
[5] *Green* v. *Obergfel.*

the rights of the Brewery Workers' Union, even though this union in 1915 had entered into a contract with the Teamsters' Union that brewery drivers should be retained in the Brewery Union. The court maintained that the American Federation of Labor, as the parent body, had a right to determine the jurisdiction of its affiliates and the courts, therefore, should not interfere with actions taken by the Federation in carrying out its 1933 mandate.

The court of appeals further held that the district court had erroneously issued an injunction since it failed to meet the requirements of the Norris-LaGuardia Act. In the opinion of the higher court, this controversy was a labor dispute even though the parties did not stand in the relationship of employer-employee; therefore the conditions laid down in the Norris-LaGuardia Act should have been met before an injunction was granted.

Unemployment Benefits Lost by Refusal To Cross Picket Lines

Workers who refuse to cross picket lines of another union to reach their jobs are not entitled to unemployment compensation, according to a recent decision of the California Supreme Court.[6] In this case five machinists refused to cross a picket line established by a welders' union. They applied for benefits under the State unemployment compensation law, which contains a clause providing that employees who leave their work because of a labor dispute are not eligible for compensation. The machinists contended that this clause was intended to disqualify only those workers who voluntarily left their work because of a trade dispute; they maintained that they themselves had left involuntarily.

The court ruled that the machinists had in fact "left their work because of a trade dispute" and were consequently ineligible to receive benefit payments. It was indicated that an employee who is prevented from working through no act of his own would be entitled to compensation, as in the case of an employee who is barred by force from the premises in which he has been employed. But in this case, the court said, the workers were unemployed solely because of their union principles, and because they did not choose to work in a plant where certain of their fellow employees were on strike. This choice, it was further pointed out by the court, is one which members of organized labor are frequently called upon to make, and such a choice of action has never been deemed involuntary.

[6] *Bodinson Mfg. Co.* v. *California Employment Commission* (109 Pac. (2d) 935).

Validity of Act Denying Workmen's Compensation Benefits to Nonresident Alien

A statute which denies workmen's compensation benefits to nonresident alien beneficiaries, when applied to a case of death without negligence, is not unconstitutional as violating a treaty between the United States and Italy, according to a recent decision of the West Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals.[7] The treaty provides that citizens of each country shall receive in the States and territories of the other the most constant security for their persons, property, and rights, including protection granted by any State or national law establishing a civil responsibility for death caused by negligence or fault. The court pointed out, however, that in no part of the treaty is any reference made to civil responsibility for death or injuries occurring without fault or negligence.

In this case a naturalized citizen was killed while employed by the Raleigh Wyoming Mining Co. A dependent Italian wife and minor child living in Yugoslavia filed claims for compensation. The claims were denied on the ground that the claimants were "nonresident alien beneficiaries" within the meaning of the State law denying compensation to such beneficiaries. Since they were aliens at the time of the naturalization of the deceased father and husband and had never resided in the United States, the court ruled that they were nonresident aliens and, unless protected by some treaty provision, were precluded from any workmen's compensation benefits under the act.

[7] *Micaz* v. *Compensation Commissioner* (13 S. E. (2d) 161).

Cost of Living

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING, MARCH 15, 1941

INCREASES in the prices of many kinds of goods and of some services caused living costs in large cities of the country to rise four-tenths of 1 percent between mid-February and mid-March. As a result of this advance, the living costs of moderate-income families in March were 2.6 percent higher than in August 1939, the month before war started in Europe.

Prices to consumers generally are beginning to show the effects of the broad increases which have occurred in wholesale markets since last summer, particularly for foods, textiles, and all kinds of house-furnishings. Following the end of the clearance sales held in January and February, clothing prices rose sharply to levels higher than those reported before the sales began. Cost of food which has been advancing since November, continued to move higher. Rents are higher than last December in almost all large cities, and there are reports of further raises on April 1, the moving date in a number of cities.

In view of recent increases in wholesale prices of clothing and house-furnishings intended for fall delivery, and probable increases in food prices and in rents, it is anticipated that the cost of living will advance as much as 3 percent more between March and the early autumn.

Food.—The cost of food—the largest single item in the budgets of wage earners and clerical workers—averaged one-half of 1 percent higher in mid-March than in mid-February. There were substantial advances in the prices of the imported staples such as sugar and coffee, reflecting higher shipping costs and international quota agreements. Prices of many domestic products also advanced, notably pork, butter, canned vegetables, and certain fresh fruits and vegetables. To some extent, however, these increases were offset by a seasonal decline in egg prices, which dropped 2.4 percent during the month and by mid-March were nearly 25 percent lower than they were last December, principally as a result of the unusually large egg production this year. Preliminary reports for April 15 indicate further advances, particularly for pork, lard, and sugar.

Rents.—Rents paid by many wage earners were raised between December and mid-March, even though as a rule comparatively few families move to new homes during the winter months, and average

rents were higher in all but 3 of the 34 cities covered by the Bureau's cost-of-living index. Reports indicated that some other tenants would have their rents raised on the usual moving dates during April and May.

For those tenants whose rents were raised, the most frequent advance was 10 to 15 percent. Rent advances were most numerous at the lowest rent levels, and Negro families were somewhat more affected than white families. This is true partly because families at this rent level more often rent on a month-to-month basis rather than on yearly leases, and rents can be raised without waiting for the expiration of the yearly term. At the rent levels above $50 increases were infrequent and in some cities declines were reported.

In most large cities, even where defense work is expanding, the rent bill has not gone up much on the average. Families that have not moved, have not for the most part had their rents changed since December. Newcomers, however, have faced serious housing shortages and high rentals. Taking the 34 cities covered as a whole, rents increased by two-tenths of 1 percent between December and March. In certain defense cities, the advance was much greater. Thus, for example, during the 3 months ended March 15 the average cost of rents in Jacksonville increased 2.8 percent, in Norfolk 1.9 percent, in Seattle 1 percent, and in Cleveland 0.9 percent. In many cities, and particularly in Baltimore, Jacksonville, and Detroit, rents have gone up much more in those sections which are most convenient to plants working on large defense orders than in the city as a whole.

The extent to which rents have gone up in the last year is shown in table 3.

Clothing.—With the end of the seasonal sales in January and February, the average cost of clothing purchased by wage earners rose 1.7 percent and by the middle of March was 0.5 percent higher than in December. The main reason for these increases is the higher cost of woolen and cotton goods at wholesale, particularly goods similar to those which the Army has been buying. Increases in a number of cities over the quarter were also reported for percale yard goods as well as for clothing made from percale. Between December and March prices of men's wool suits increased by 1.2 percent and overalls by 2.2 percent. Price increases were also generally reported for men's felt hats and shoes.

Since the outbreak of war and particularly since last spring, the widest changes in clothing prices have been for men's clothing. Prices for overalls and work shirts, inexpensive wool topcoats and wool suits have all risen by more than 5 percent in the last year. In general, prices for women's clothing have not advanced as much as those of men's clothing, partly because Army purchases have not affected the fabrics entering into women's clothing as directly, and partly because

it is easier to economize in the cut and trim of women's garments without making measurable changes in quality.

Although the average price of clothing has been going up, there are many garments whose prices were no higher in March 1941 than they were before war broke out in Europe. Prices of women's silk hose, a very important item in family budgets, were slightly lower than in September 1939, partly because raw-silk prices went down and partly because of the introduction of nylon hose and the increase in the use of cotton anklets by women and girls. Prices for cotton and rayon socks have also remained substantially unchanged.

Housefurnishings.—Prices of many kinds of housefurnishings rose between February and March, following earlier advances at wholesale. In 33 of the 34 cities from which the Bureau of Labor Statistics obtains quarterly reports, prices of furniture suites were higher in March than they had been in December 1940. Retail prices of most makes of electric refrigerators were also higher in March as leading manufacturers marked up their quotations. In most cities, however, electric-refrigerator prices had not returned to the levels prevailing before the cuts which occurred during the fall and winter. As in the case of clothing, increases in the cost of wool and cotton fabrics caused the price of such housefurnishings as sheets, rugs, and carpets to advance in a number of cities from less than 1 to more than 10 percent.

Fuel, electricity, and ice.—In contrast to food, clothing, rent, and housefurnishings, prices of fuel, gas, and electricity did not go up during the month under review. In three New England cities—Boston, Manchester, and Portland, Maine—prices of fuel oil actually dropped substantially from the peak levels reached in midwinter. In Los Angeles and Detroit gas rates were reduced and in Denver electric rates were revised downward.

Services.—Prices of most kinds of services utilized by the average city worker's family remained stable, as they have been since the outbreak of war in Europe. It should be remembered that the cost of services of all kinds usually go up more slowly than does the cost of goods. Such expenses as carfares, doctor's bills, telephone rates and the like, have shown little change for a number of years. On the other hand, wages paid to domestic help moved up substantially in Mobile, Ala., and beauty shops were charging higher prices at the end of the quarter in 6 cities.

Changes in Prices of Goods, by Commodity Groups

The percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from February 15 to March 15, 1941, in 20 large cities and from December 15, 1940, to March 15, 1941, in 34 large cities are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items*

FEBRUARY 15 TO MARCH 15, 1941—20 LARGE CITIES

Area and city	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	+0.4	[1] +0.5	+1.7	[2]	[3] +0.1	+1.2	[2]
New England: Boston	+.1	−.1	+2.5	+.2	−1.7	+.7	+0.3
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+.6	+.5	+1.9	+.4	[2]	+3.2	+.2
New York	+.2	−.6	+2.1	[2]	+2.8	+.6	+.1
Philadelphia	+.4	+.3	+1.5	+.3	[2]	+.8	[2]
Pittsburgh	+.6	+1.0	+1.8	+.1	+.2	+.6	−.2
East North Central:							
Chicago	+.2	+.5	+1.1	[2]	[2]	+.8	−.1
Cincinnati	+.8	+1.1	+2.3	+.2	[2]	+1.0	+.2
Cleveland	+.6	+.9	+.8	+.6	[2]	+1.9	+.2
Detroit	+.8	+1.2	+1.6	+.4	[2]	+3.1	+.2
West North Central:							
Kansas City	+.6	+1.3	+1.4	+.1	+.1	+.9	+.1
Minneapolis	+.2	−.3	+2.0	+.1	−.2	+2.0	+.1
St. Louis	+.4	+.3	+1.7	−.1	−.3	+1.5	+.1
South Atlantic:							
Baltimore	+.4	+.8	+.2	+.2	−.2	+1.7	[2]
Savannah	+.7	+.7	+3.5	+.4	[2]	−.6	+.1
East South Central: Birmingham	+.3	−.3	+2.2	+.2	−.1	+.7	[2]
West South Central: Houston	+.4	[2]	+3.4	−.5	[2]	+.8	+.2
Mountain: Denver	+.4	+.7	+.8	−.1	[2]	+1.2	+.1
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+.8	+2.1	+.8	−.5	[2]	+1.2	+.1
San Francisco	+.2	+1.0	+.1	−.2	[2]	+1.0	−.4
Seattle	+.5	+1.4	+.6	−.3	+.1	+.5	[2]

DECEMBER 15, 1940, TO MARCH 15, 1941—34 LARGE CITIES

Average: Large cities	+0.5	[1] +1.1	+0.5	+0.2	[2]	+1.2	+0.1
New England:							
Boston	+.4	+1.5	+1.0	+.2	−2.2	+.4	+.3
Manchester	−.2	[2]	[2]	+.3	−2.7	+.4	+.2
Portland, Maine	[2]	−.1	+1.0	+.1	−3.0	−.2	+.8
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+1.1	+1.9	+1.1	+.4	[2]	+2.9	+.9
New York	+.6	+1.2	+.4	[2]	+2.7	[2]	+.2
Philadelphia	+.5	+.4	+.6	+.4	+1.0	+.7	+.2
Pittsburgh	+.3	+.7	[2]	+.1	+1.2	+.4	−.2
Scranton	−.3	−1.5	+.4	+.2	[2]	+1.2	+.5
East North Central:							
Chicago	+.5	+1.2	+.5	+.2	[2]	+1.2	−.2
Cincinnati	+.9	+1.9	+.8	+.2	+.2	+1.7	+.2
Cleveland	+.8	+1.5	+.3	+.9	[2]	+3.3	+.1
Detroit	+1.2	+2.7	+.7	+.6	−1.1	+3.3	+.4
Indianapolis	+.2	[2]	+.5	+.4	+.1	+2.3	−.1
Milwaukee	+.4	+1.3	+.2	+.2	[2]	+1.5	−.1
West North Central:							
Kansas City	+.6	+2.0	+.2	+.2	+.1	+.8	[2]
Minneapolis	−.1	−.6	+.9	+.1	−.4	+.4	+.1
St. Louis	+.2	+.3	+.3	−.1	−.2	+1.2	+.1
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	+.5	+1.6	+.3	[2]	+.1	−.4	+.1
Baltimore	+1.0	+2.4	+.4	+.6	−.3	+1.8	+.1
Jacksonville	+.6	[2]	+.1	+2.8	+.4	−1.1	+.5
Norfolk	+1.9	+3.6	+1.6	+1.9	[2]	+1.4	+.4
Richmond	+.3	+.4	+.5	+.1	+.4	+.7	+.1
Savannah	+.1	+.5	+.4	+.4	−.3	−1.6	−.3
Washington, D. C.	+1.2	+2.8	+.2	+.1	−.4	+2.0	+.8
East South Central:							
Birmingham	−.3	−1.5	+.4	+.5	+.1	+1.0	−.1
Memphis	+.3	+.1	+.3	+.8	+.6	[2]	[2]
Mobile	+1.5	+2.6	+.1	+.8	+.6	+.6	+1.6
West South Central:							
Houston	+.1	[2]	+.4	+.2	+.1	+1.1	−.2
New Orleans	+1.0	+2.4	+.6	+.2	−1.0	+.7	[2]
Mountain: Denver	−.3	−.8	+.1	−.2	−1.0	+1.1	−.2
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+.4	+1.2	+.2	[2]	−1.3	+1.5	[2]
Portland, Oreg.	+.9	+2.1	+.1	+.2	+.2	+1.1	+.3
San Francisco	+.8	+2.8	+.1	+.2	[2]	+1.0	−.6
Seattle	+1.0	+2.2	+.1	+1.0	+.3	+.9	+.1

[1] Based on data for 51 cities. [2] No change. [3] Based on data for 34 cities.

Indexes (based on the average for the period 1935–39 as 100) of the cost of goods as of March 15, 1941, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 34 Large Cities, by Groups of Items, March 15, 1941*

[Average, 1935–39=100]

Area and city	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	101.2	[1] 98.4	102.1	105.1	100.7	101.6	101.9
New England:							
Boston	99.5	96.1	101.7	100.7	104.9	98.7	101.3
Manchester	100.1	97.2	101.1	103.3	102.1	99.6	101.7
Portland, Maine	98.3	94.5	100.4	100.7	99.6	99.0	100.0
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	102.8	100.8	102.1	107.5	99.8	102.8	103.3
New York	101.5	99.8	101.6	102.7	103.5	96.6	103.3
Philadelphia	99.6	95.2	101.6	103.9	99.7	102.4	101.7
Pittsburgh	101.4	98.5	102.2	105.8	104.0	102.7	100.7
Scranton	99.1	97.6	102.1	98.4	96.3	100.8	101.2
East North Central:							
Chicago	101.5	98.4	100.0	109.1	100.5	103.5	100.8
Cincinnati	100.5	97.6	104.4	102.5	99.4	101.8	101.4
Cleveland	102.8	100.2	102.1	109.0	108.9	104.2	100.7
Detroit	102.1	98.4	102.6	109.1	98.3	102.7	102.2
Indianapolis	102.2	98.8	103.0	111.8	100.1	102.0	101.4
Milwaukee	99.5	96.3	99.3	102.7	99.9	101.3	101.0
West North Central:							
Kansas City	99.2	94.8	102.3	103.1	100.8	99.9	100.1
Minneapolis	102.1	100.2	102.0	108.1	96.4	103.4	102.3
St. Louis	101.2	99.6	103.1	101.5	102.8	97.7	102.3
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	100.5	96.7	103.5	104.5	103.0	99.4	100.9
Baltimore	101.5	99.1	101.7	105.9	100.6	104.2	101.4
Jacksonville	102.4	99.0	101.9	109.5	98.4	100.7	103.9
Norfolk	102.6	100.6	104.5	107.5	99.7	101.8	102.6
Richmond	100.0	94.9	103.9	103.2	100.8	105.3	101.2
Savannah	101.6	100.7	102.2	105.4	96.9	103.3	101.2
Washington, D. C.	100.9	99.3	103.5	100.3	98.9	107.5	100.9
East South Central:							
Birmingham	101.6	95.3	102.9	117.9	93.9	100.5	101.3
Memphis	100.2	95.7	102.7	107.9	94.7	101.6	101.2
Mobile	101.7	99.8	100.7	111.8	97.0	102.7	100.9
West South Central:							
Houston	102.3	102.1	103.4	107.1	93.2	105.8	100.6
New Orleans	102.4	102.9	103.0	104.1	96.4	105.7	101.4
Mountain: Denver	99.9	95.1	100.1	106.7	97.4	103.2	101.4
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	102.6	101.1	103.6	106.4	94.3	102.6	102.9
Portland, Oreg.	102.7	102.8	102.9	107.2	94.8	101.5	102.4
San Francisco	102.4	100.6	103.1	103.9	91.5	102.3	104.6
Seattle	103.0	102.4	103.8	108.1	95.0	98.5	103.2

[1] Based on data for 51 cities.

Cost of Rent

Table 3 shows the changes in rents that took place between December 1940 and March 1941 and during the year ending in March 1941.

TABLE 3.—*Changes in Rents, by the Amount of Monthly Rentals, in 34 Large Cities (White Tenants Only)*

City and regional area	December 1940 to March 1941						March 1940 to March 1941		
	Percent of change for all rents [1]			Percent of homes affected by rent changes			Percent of change for all rents [1]		
	Less than $30.00	$30.00 to $49.99	$50.00 and over	Less than $30.00	$30.00 to $49.99	$50.00 and over	Less than $30.00	$30.00 to $49.99	$50.00 and over
New England:									
Boston	+0.4	0	−0.2	4.5	4.0	1.0	+0.5	+0.1	−0.9
Manchester	+.3	0	[2]	4.2	0	[2]	+1.0	0	[2]
Portland, Maine	+.1	−0.1	0	1.8	4.8	0	+.1	−.4	−.6
Middle Atlantic:									
Buffalo	+.5	0	+.1	7.6	2.1	6.1	+1.5	+.2	−.6
New York	+.1	−.1	−.4	4.0	4.0	6.9	+.5	0	−1.2
Philadelphia	+.6	+.2	−.1	5.6	5.0	6.8	+1.1	+.4	−.6
Pittsburgh	0	+.1	+.1	0	1.6	.8	+1.0	+.4	+.2
Scranton	+.2	0	−.2	1.2	.6	2.5	+.2	−.1	−.2
East North Central:									
Chicago	+.4	+.1	−.1	3.9	2.3	2.1	+1.5	+.4	−.9
Cincinnati	+.2	0	−.5	3.2	1.7	5.3	+.6	−1.2	−1.9
Cleveland	+1.1	+.5	+.5	11.5	9.0	6.1	+1.7	+.5	−1.2
Detroit	+.6	+.7	−.3	7.1	10.2	3.2	+1.0	+1.2	−.9
Indianapolis	+.5	+.1	+.4	5.7	2.8	6.7	+2.5	+1.1	+1.4
Milwaukee	+.2	0	+.1	3.3	3.7	2.5	+.5	+.1	0
West North Central:									
Kansas City	+.3	−.1	+.2	3.9	2.5	6.6	+.5	−.5	−1.8
Minneapolis	+.1	−.1	−.1	3.0	3.8	4.3	+.5	−.2	−.9
St. Louis	0	−.2	−.2	2.1	3.4	2.5	+.2	−.4	−.2
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta	+.1	−.3	0	4.1	5.1	0	+.6	−.7	+.6
Baltimore	+.1	0	−.1	4.3	2.1	2.1	+1.1	−.1	−1.1
Jacksonville	+2.7	+3.1	+2.1	15.9	23.4	22.2	+4.8	+3.8	+2.1
Norfolk	+2.3	+.4	+.4	10.9	3.9	4.3	+7.0	+2.7	+1.4
Richmond	0	0	0	.3	1.2	0	+.7	−.1	−.2
Savannah	+.5	+.3	[2]	9.0	1.6	[2]	+.8	+.1	[2]
Washington, D. C	+.2	+.1	−.3	4.7	2.5	2.4	+.3	+.2	−.4
East South Central:									
Birmingham	+.3	0	0	4.3	3.8	0	+4.1	+.7	+.6
Memphis	+1.0	+.2	+.7	8.8	4.0	7.5	+3.0	+.8	+1.1
Mobile	+.8	+.3	0	5.4	6.4	0	+5.9	+2.8	+1.5
West South Central:									
Houston	0	−.5	−.9	5.8	8.2	8.2	+.1	−1.4	−2.2
New Orleans	+.2	−.6	+.6	2.9	.4	5.3	+1.3	+.2	+.5
Mountain: Denver	−.1	−.2	+.1	2.7	3.1	4.8	+.1	−.3	−.5
Pacific:									
Los Angeles	+.1	−.2	−.4	4.9	3.2	6.0	−.7	−2.0	−1.7
Portland, Oreg	+.3	−.1	[2]	1.8	4.8	[2]	+1.4	−.3	[2]
San Francisco	+.3	0	+.1	4.1	4.5	5.7	+1.0	−.4	−.5
Seattle	+1.3	+.5	−.2	10.0	5.8	15.0	+2.1	−1.1	−1.8

[1] Includes rents which remained unchanged or declined as well as those which advanced.
[2] Insufficient data.

INTERCITY DIFFERENCES IN COST OF LIVING, MARCH 15, 1941

THE cost of the "maintenance" budget for a family of four was established by the WPA in 1935. At March 1941 prices this budget varied in cost in 33 large cities from $1,196.15 in Mobile, Ala., to $1,519.44 in New York City. The cities in which the cost was highest were, in order, New York, Washington, D. C., San Francisco, and Chicago, in all of which the yearly cost exceeded $1,460.

On the basis of costs in Washington, D. C., as 100, food was relatively highest in New York, with San Francisco next in order. Cloth-

ing was highest in Cincinnati and Cleveland, housing highest in Washington, D. C. (no other city came within 10 points of the cost in that city), and housefurnishings highest in New Orleans and San Francisco.

These estimates are revisions of the series begun, as above noted. In March 1935 when the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration conducted a study of comparative living costs in 59 cities. The purpose of that study was to determine the cost of a uniform level of living in these cities at a given time, and how its cost compared from one city to another. Quantity budgets were constructed by the Works Progress Administration to represent the needs of families at two levels of living—the "basic maintenance," level, and the "emergency" level. An identical budget for each of these levels of living, with certain adjustments in the fuel, ice and transportation lists to take account of climatic and other local conditions, was used in each city. The Bureau of Labor Statistics cooperated in the study by obtaining the prices necessary to compute the costs of the two budgets. Insofar as possible, prices for identical commodities were obtained in each city.[1]

Between March 1935 and the spring of 1939, no attempt was made to price these budgets. In order to bring the intercity comparison of costs up-to-date, estimates of the cost of the "maintenance" budget were made, however, for the 31 cities covered by both the Works Progress Administration study and the Bureau of Labor Statistics' studies of changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.[2] By applying the Bureau of Labor Statistics' indexes of living costs, which show changes in costs from time to time, to the Works Progress Administration data on intercity differences in costs in March 1935, approximate intercity comparisons of costs were obtained. Since the cost-of-living indexes of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are based on a budget weighted differently from the budget used in the Works Progress Administration study, when the two sets of figures were combined, the resulting estimates of intercity differences in costs were merely approximations.

Early in 1939, the Works Progress Administration budgets were, in part, priced again for many of the cities. At that time the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in connection with a study of comparative living costs in 10 small cities made at the request of the Wage and Hour

[1] Details of this study and a description of the goods and services included in each budget can be found in Research Monograph XII: Intercity Differences in Costs of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities, copies of which may be obtained from the Division of Research, Work Projects Administration, Washington, D. C.

[2] See articles, Changes in Cost of Living, Mar. 15, 1941 (p. 1222).

Division of the Department of Labor,[3] computed the cost of parts of the "maintenance" budget, using prices obtained as of December 15, 1938, and February 14, 1939.

The cost of clothing, housefurnishings, fuel and light, and miscellaneous groups were recomputed on the basis of prices of 55 articles of clothing, 16 articles of furniture and furnishings, 5 items of fuel and light,and 37 miscellaneous items in 31 cities on December 15, 1938, and weighted by the quantities provided in the "maintenance" budget. The food-cost budget was entirely recomputed in terms of the "adequate diet at minimum cost" of the United States Bureau of Home Economics (a somewhat more varied diet than that originally used in the "maintenance" budget). Average rents in each of the 31 cities were estimated by applying the Bureau's time-to-time indexes of rental costs to the Works Progress Administration's figures for March 1935. In order to include Manchester, N. H., and Milwaukee, Wis. (recently added to the cities for which the Bureau prepares indexes of time changes) among the cities for which estimates of intercity differences are regularly prepared, similar computations have been made for these cities, using prices as of September 15, 1940.

The present article gives estimates of the cost of the "maintenance" budget for March 15, 1941, obtained by applying the Bureau's indexes of living costs (which show changes in costs from time to time) to the costs as previously estimated, for all items other than food. The "adequate diet at minimum cost" was recalculated as of March 15, 1941, for inclusion in the budget on the basis of 61 foods now priced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Table 1 shows the estimated cost of living for a four-person manual worker's family, at the "maintenance" level as defined by the Works Progress Administration in 33 large cities, as of March 15, 1941. Table 2 presents these data as indexes on a base of the cost in Washington, D. C., as of that date as 100.

[3] For report on that study, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1939: Differences in Living Costs in Northern and Southern Cities.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at Maintenance Level*[1] *in 33 Large Cities as of March 15, 1941*

City	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Atlanta	$1,339.68	$478.87	$162.70	$285.76	$89.76	$30.48	$292.11
Baltimore	1,339.62	476.58	167.05	252.87	103.18	36.40	303.54
Birmingham	1,305.90	483.82	172.44	238.48	70.09	32.20	308.87
Boston	1,436.37	481.38	171.38	260.71	136.67	32.73	353.50
Buffalo	1,327.72	474.50	170.77	243.67	109.44	33.04	296.30
Chicago	1,468.68	486.57	160.14	292.28	129.12	31.87	368.70
Cincinnati	1,356.67	468.71	178.60	269.74	95.23	35.35	309.04
Cleveland	1,420.16	474.04	177.16	287.94	112.60	34.07	334.35
Denver	1,298.24	446.81	163.83	237.98	112.26	33.19	304.17
Detroit	1,449.62	472.46	170.05	309.95	113.11	32.42	351.63
Houston	1,312.84	458.72	161.27	245.49	85.69	35.27	326.40
Indianapolis	1,318.91	463.97	160.47	246.30	96.52	32.93	318.72
Jacksonville	1,331.37	489.66	149.62	231.84	102.02	32.77	325.46
Kansas City	1,259.52	456.47	172.79	209.63	106.19	33.20	281.24
Los Angeles	1,348.62	463.13	170.10	242.22	71.13	35.61	366.43
Manchester	1,342.87	493.48	154.34	192.29	152.44	32.19	318.13
Memphis	1,317.08	450.85	173.35	268.30	81.63	35.00	307.95
Milwaukee	1,413.86	476.66	141.99	288.60	123.08	31.05	352.48
Minneapolis	1,431.83	487.75	164.54	306.08	136.75	32.34	304.37
Mobile	1,196.15	467.26	155.67	188.32	78.51	33.97	272.42
New Orleans	1,277.30	471.15	164.04	209.04	70.79	37.56	324.72
New York	1,519.44	527.42	166.65	309.58	121.62	33.68	360.49
Norfolk	1,361.77	488.53	173.26	258.93	97.52	34.44	309.09
Philadelphia	1,344.72	478.25	169.88	258.18	102.12	33.43	302.85
Pittsburgh	1,400.89	496.55	167.28	287.51	91.02	34.13	324.40
Portland, Maine	1,356.45	499.62	163.28	201.53	146.40	32.71	312.91
Portland, Oreg	1,338.79	487.39	160.42	192.34	131.41	34.28	332.95
Richmond	1,343.95	457.35	167.77	253.01	104.57	34.93	326.32
St. Louis	1,407.62	489.25	163.27	283.75	110.48	36.15	324.72
San Francisco	1,480.32	502.89	172.67	286.37	84.77	37.37	396.25
Scranton	1,387.04	495.79	161.35	266.10	95.06	32.48	336.26
Seattle	1,387.11	499.16	172.31	198.26	121.03	35.07	361.28
Washington, D. C	1,498.00	489.90	173.28	351.83	114.36	36.90	331.73

[1] As defined for all groups except food, by the Works Progress Administration in its Research Monograph XII: Intercity Differences in Cost of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities. The food budget is computed in terms of the "adequate diet at minimum cost" of the U. S. Bureau of Home Economics.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Indexes of Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at Maintenance Level*[1] *in 33 Large Cities as of March 15, 1941*

City	Indexes (cost in Washington, D. C., as of Dec. 15, 1940=100.0) of—						
	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Atlanta	89.4	97.7	93.9	81.2	78.5	82.6	88.1
Baltimore	89.4	97.3	96.4	71.9	90.2	98.6	91.5
Birmingham	87.2	98.8	99.5	67.8	61.3	87.3	93.1
Boston	95.9	98.3	98.9	74.1	119.5	88.7	106.6
Buffalo	88.6	96.9	98.6	69.3	95.7	89.5	89.3
Chicago	98.0	99.3	92.4	83.1	112.9	86.4	111.1
Cincinnati	90.6	95.7	103.1	76.7	83.3	95.8	93.2
Cleveland	94.8	96.8	102.2	81.8	98.5	92.3	100.8
Denver	86.7	91.2	94.5	67.6	98.2	89.9	91.7
Detroit	96.8	96.4	98.1	88.1	98.9	87.9	106.0
Houston	87.6	93.6	93.1	69.8	74.9	95.6	98.4
Indianapolis	88.0	94.7	92.6	70.0	84.4	89.2	96.1
Jacksonville	88.9	100.0	86.3	65.9	89.2	88.8	98.1
Kansas City	84.1	93.2	99.7	59.6	92.9	90.0	84.8
Los Angeles	90.0	94.5	98.2	68.8	62.2	96.5	110.5
Manchester	89.6	100.7	89.1	54.7	133.3	87.2	95.9
Memphis	87.9	92.0	100.0	76.3	71.4	94.9	92.8
Milwaukee	94.4	97.3	81.9	82.0	107.6	84.1	106.3
Minneapolis	95.6	99.6	95.0	87.0	119.6	87.6	91.8
Mobile	79.8	95.4	89.8	53.5	68.7	92.1	82.1
New Orleans	85.3	96.2	94.7	59.4	61.9	101.8	97.9
New York	101.4	107.7	96.2	88.0	106.3	91.3	108.7
Norfolk	90.9	99.7	100.0	73.6	85.3	93.3	93.2
Philadelphia	89.8	97.6	98.0	73.4	89.3	90.6	91.3
Pittsburgh	93.5	101.4	96.5	81.7	79.6	92.5	97.8
Portland, Maine	90.6	102.0	94.2	57.3	128.0	88.6	94.3
Portland, Oreg.	89.4	99.5	92.6	54.7	114.9	92.9	100.4
Richmond	89.7	93.4	96.8	71.9	91.4	94.7	98.4
St. Louis	94.0	99.9	94.2	80.6	96.6	98.0	97.9
San Francisco	98.8	102.7	99.6	81.4	74.1	101.3	119.4
Scranton	92.6	101.2	93.1	75.6	83.1	88.0	101.4
Seattle	92.6	101.9	99.4	56.4	105.8	95.0	108.9
Washington, D. C.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] As defined for all groups except food, by the Works Progress Administration in its Research Monograph XII: Intercity Differences in Cost of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities. The food budget is computed in terms of the "adequate diet at minimum cost" of the U. S. Bureau of Home Economics.

Industrial Disputes

RECENT STRIKES

LATEST estimates for March 1941 show 330 new strikes in which 113,000 workers were involved. The estimated man-days of idleness due to strikes in March was 1,400,000. The largest strikes in terms of number of workers involved were at plants of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation in Bethlehem and Johnstown, Pa. The International Harvester and Allis-Chalmers strikes, which began in January, accounted for nearly a third of the total idleness during strikes in March. The last of these disputes ended early in April.

Comparisons with March 1940 and with the March average for the 5 years preceding the defense program, are shown in the table below. Strike activity this March was greater than it was a year ago but, measured by man-days of idleness, was about the same as was the average for the 5 years 1935–39.

Strikes in February and March 1941, Compared With Averages of Preceding 5-year Period

Item	March 1941 [1]	February 1941 [1]	March 1940	Averages for 5-year period, 1935–39	
				March	February
Number of strikes beginning in month	330	240	178	292	182
Number of workers involved in strikes	113,000	60,000	22,433	103,740	69,611
Number of man-days' idleness in all strikes in progress during the month	1,400,000	1,000,000	386,981	1,394,625	828,701

[1] Preliminary estimates.

TREND OF STRIKES, 1935 TO 1941

THE following table shows that there was some increase in strike activity during the latter part of 1940 and the first month of 1941, although December showed the usual seasonal decline.

Trend of Strikes, 1935 to January 1941

Year and month	Number of strikes			Workers involved in strikes			Man-days idle during month or year
	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ending in month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ending in month	
1935	2,014			1,117,213			15,456,337
1936	2,172			788,648			13,901,956
1937	4,740			1,860,621			28,424,857
1938	2,772			688,376			9,148,273
1939	2,613			1,170,962			17,812,219
1940	2,508			576,988			6,700,872
1940							
January	128	222	124	26,937	41,284	32,743	246,674
February	172	270	153	29,509	38,050	17,252	289,992
March	178	295	187	22,433	43,231	29,593	386,981
April	228	336	214	39,481	53,119	29,226	441,866
May	239	361	239	53,231	77,124	59,263	665,688
June	214	336	190	38,542	56,403	36,559	484,007
July	244	390	227	63,126	82,970	54,100	585,651
August	231	394	253	61,356	90,226	47,199	706,308
September	253	394	242	65,362	108,389	72,523	780,570
October	267	419	253	71,997	107,863	68,730	915,014
November	207	373	243	62,399	101,532	82,571	739,807
December	147	277	168	42,615	61,576	43,605	458,314
1941							
January	213	322	204	89,841	107,812	52,837	659,821

STRIKES IN JANUARY 1941

ABOUT one-third of 1 percent of the total employed workers were involved in strikes beginning in January 1941. The Bureau's present information indicates a total of 213 strikes beginning in January, in which 89,841 workers were involved.[1] About 660,000 man-days of idleness resulted from these strikes plus the 109 strikes which continued into January from previous months.

The number of strikes beginning in January was about 45 percent greater than in December, 66 percent greater than in January 1940, and 25 percent greater than the average for January during the 5 years (1935–39) preceding the defense program. The number of workers involved in strikes beginning in January 1941 was 111 percent greater than the preceding month, 233 percent greater than January 1940, and 46 percent greater than the average for January during the 5-year period, 1935–39. The amount of idleness caused by strikes in January was 44 percent greater than in December 1940 and 167 percent greater

[1] Although records for January strikes are substantially complete, past experience indicates that information on a few additional cases will be obtained in future months. This will be included in the annual report for 1941. Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in the Bureau's statistics.

than in January 1940, but 35 percent less than the average for January 1935–39.

The greatest concentration of strike activity during January 1941 was in machinery manufacture in which a strike at the International Harvester Co. began January 17 and one at the Allis Chalmers Manufacturing Co. began January 22. Nearly 30,000 workers—one-third of the total number involved in January strikes—were in the machinery-manufacturing industries and more than one-fourth of the total idleness caused by strikes in January was in these industries. The transportation-equipment industries—aircraft, automobiles, shipbuilding, etc.—had 16,000 workers involved in strikes during the month and experienced nearly 95,000 man-days of idleness.

The building and construction industry had more new strikes (26) during January than any other industry group, but all of these were small disputes involving a total of only 1,857 workers. There were 20 new strikes in the textile industries, 19 in machinery manufacturing, 17 in wholesale and retail trade, 16 in iron and steel, and 15 in the manufacture of transportation equipment.

In the 12-month period ending with January 1941, the greatest amount of idleness in any industry group because of strikes was 966,000 man-days in the machinery manufacturing industries. Next in order were the lumber and allied products industries with 850,000 man-days, textiles with 690,000, and trade with 632,000. In the preceding 12-month period (February 1939 through January 1940) the greatest amount of idleness was in the mining industries (7,459,000 man-days). Most of this was in connection with the general bituminous coal strike which began April 1, 1939, and was not settled until the middle of May.[2] During these 12 months there were 2,664,000 man-days of idleness in the industries manufacturing transportation equipment, 1,275,000 in textiles, 787,000 in transportation and communication, and 780,000 in the lumber industries.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, September 1939.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in January 1941, by Industry, With Comparative Man-Day Figures for Preceding Two Years*

Industry	January 1941			Number of man-days idle during 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month		
	Number	Workers involved		January 1941	January 1940
All Industries	**213**	**89,841**	**659,821**	**7,114,019**	**17,545,433**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**16**	**4,821**	**27,055**	**407,762**	**211,318**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	4	2,640	6,340	141,109	74,464
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets				249	
Cast-iron pipe and fittings			5,500	38,342	23,493
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools				864	152
Forgings, iron and steel				4,090	6,062
Hardware	1	37	387	7,266	25,239
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures	1	125	1,875	30,751	1,869
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	1	662	1,986	24,117	2,057
Stoves	1	588	2,940	25,564	18,661
Structural and ornamental metal work	1	225	1,350	18,492	1,467
Tin cans and other tinware				19,840	13,610
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	1	16	64	5,109	736
Wire and wire products	1	39	273	7,527	13,552
Other	5	489	6,340	84,442	29,956
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**19**	**29,958**	**175,518**	**966,009**	**423,255**
Agricultural implements	1	15,650	34,564	50,465	9,326
Cash registers, adding machines, and typewriters	1	2,740	4,968	4,968	153
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	4	1,461	52,026	439,670	87,129
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels				7,434	125,070
Foundry and machine-shop products	8	8,524	77,215	324,218	105,744
Machine tools (power driven)	1	600	5,280	17,016	6,815
Radios and phonographs	3	951	1,401	21,545	377
Other	1	32	64	100,693	88,641
Transportation equipment	**15**	**16,069**	**94,781**	**356,763**	**2,663,813**
Aircraft	1	3,113	9,339	44,483	86,677
Automobiles, bodies and parts	5	4,952	40,532	137,859	2,541,530
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	5	4,232	20,125	93,507	2,150
Shipbuilding	4	3,772	24,785	73,026	33,456
Other				7,888	
Nonferrous metals and their products	**5**	**3,170**	**13,619**	**262,558**	**171,771**
Aluminum manufactures				30,866	64
Brass, bronze, and copper products	2	3,100	3,100	5,698	33,832
Clocks, watches and time-recording devices				132	10,726
Jewelry				9,720	3,595
Lighting equipment				6,384	8,841
Silverware and plated ware			7,740	47,740	1,925
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	1	42	154	48,124	97,154
Stamped and enameled ware			1,870	52,373	7,993
Other	2	28	755	61,521	7,064
Lumber and allied products	**13**	**2,095**	**58,792**	**849,520**	**779,837**
Furniture	5	713	25,023	255,968	142,865
Millwork and planing	2	189	2,189	65,130	159,046
Sawmills and logging camps	4	1,150	29,034	391,951	380,546
Other	2	43	2,546	136,471	97,380
Stone, clay, and glass products	**8**	**5,255**	**38,065**	**236,113**	**144,755**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	1	23	557	67,173	54,210
Cement			5,060	31,242	576
Glass	1	2,800	17,000	72,206	17,738
Marble, granite, slate, and other products				626	27,410
Pottery	3	646	6,163	21,225	3,176
Other	3	1,786	9,288	43,641	41,645

[1] Part of these workers, in the International Harvester strike, were not actually idle until the latter part of February.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in January 1941, by Industry, With Comparative Man-Day Figures for Preceding Two Years*—Continued

Industry	January 1941			Number of man-days idle during 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month		
	Number	Workers involved		January 1941	January 1940
Textiles and their products	**20**	**6,168**	**56,408**	**689,759**	**1,275,200**
Fabrics	7	4,939	36,965	304,176	590,306
Carpets and rugs	1	184	1,288	3,826	4,493
Cotton goods	2	1,331	7,340	139,892	340,928
Cotton small wares	1	39	663	753	3,439
Dyeing and finishing textiles			5,341	25,665	17,564
Silk and rayon goods				60,845	74,819
Woolen and worsted goods	1	2,998	19,372	29,393	48,336
Other	2	387	2,961	43,802	100,727
Wearing apparel	13	1,229	19,443	385,583	684,894
Clothing, men's	1	17	68	30,622	42,119
Clothing, women's	6	669	8,616	163,537	434,456
Corsets and allied garments	1	175	3,675	5,205	2,800
Men's furnishings				1,225	24,788
Hats, caps, and millinery	1	16	16	47,060	13,693
Shirts and collars				1,845	17,942
Hosiery			1,650	77,695	64,779
Knit goods	3	162	4,848	35,157	52,218
Other	1	190	570	23,237	32,099
Leather and its manufactures	**3**	**1,878**	**10,622**	**132,905**	**174,054**
Boots and shoes	2	1,116	3,800	47,660	103,116
Leather	1	762	6,822	21,571	25,696
Other leather goods				63,674	45,242
Food and kindred products	**12**	**1,883**	**19,541**	**169,847**	**354,583**
Baking	3	204	2,969	30,293	33,914
Beverages	1	42	452	5,834	17,780
Butter				564	31
Canning and preserving	2	86	442	43,440	102,020
Confectionery	2	566	6,368	19,468	12,860
Flour and grain mills			1,188	6,450	5,940
Ice cream					349
Slaughtering and meat packing	1	37	3,537	33,885	83,888
Sugar refining, cane	1	803	757	757	85,788
Other	2	145	3,828	29,156	12,013
Tobacco manufactures				**78,459**	**73,952**
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff				18	
Cigars				78,441	45,448
Cigarettes					28,504
Paper and printing	**5**	**1,026**	**3,753**	**107,134**	**155,485**
Boxes, paper				40,641	75,548
Paper and pulp				18,224	14,059
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	1	837	2,569	9,067	2,122
Newspapers and periodicals	2	133	450	13,708	31,153
Other	2	56	734	25,494	32,603
Chemicals and allied products	**4**	**298**	**1,208**	**186,940**	**377,868**
Chemicals				11,095	21,907
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	1	73	146	386	14,081
Druggists' preparations				1,042	204
Explosives				2,232	801
Fertilizers				401	3,090
Paints and varnishes	1	66	594	11,371	4,241
Petroleum refining				9,747	67,150
Rayon and allied products				85,000	235,492
Soap				500	12,724
Other	2	159	468	65,166	18,178
Rubber products	**3**	**699**	**2,100**	**99,328**	**70,920**
Rubber boots and shoes				690	2,400
Rubber tires and inner tubes	2	689	1,430	79,298	19,002
Other rubber goods	1	10	670	19,340	49,518
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**6**	**899**	**20,364**	**227,676**	**157,779**
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas			1,218	3,829	9,797
Broom and brush			3,024	10,283	3,303
Furriers and fur factories			367	25,312	30,647
Other	6	899	15,755	188,252	114,032

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in January 1941, by Industry, With Comparative Man-Day Figures for Preceding Two Years*—Continued

Industry	January 1941			Number of man-days idle during 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month		
	Number	Workers involved		January 1941	January 1940
Extraction of minerals	**11**	**4,213**	**20,725**	**273,042**	**7,459,033**
Coal mining, anthracite	3	647	1,996	103,685	72,030
Metalliferous mining	1	59	885	4,400	45,322
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining				3,220	35,706
Coal mining, bituminous	7	3,507	17,844	159,575	7,302,305
Other				2,162	3,670
Transportation and communication	**10**	**608**	**8,925**	**575,229**	**787,276**
Water transportation	1	6	366	169,739	508,832
Motortruck transportation	7	323	3,022	153,931	192,142
Motorbus transportation				10,886	10,752
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	1	36	1,362	221,424	52,581
Electric railroad	1	243	4,175	10,841	18
Steam railroad				568	
Telephone and telegraph				7,196	19,848
Air transportation					2,098
Radio broadcasting and transmitting				644	975
Other					30
Trade	**17**	**1,049**	**70,656**	**632,272**	**422,936**
Wholesale	9	720	5,885	105,375	84,073
Retail	8	329	64,771	526,897	338,863
Domestic and personal service	**9**	**355**	**5,486**	**107,941**	**281,256**
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	5	204	3,621	64,747	70,171
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors				3,562	1,104
Laundries	3	78	916	21,493	107,784
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing				13,554	74,760
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	1	73	949	3,514	26,084
Other				1,071	1,353
Professional service	**2**	**170**	**1,550**	**17,891**	**37,181**
Recreation and amusement	1	60	1,000	13,736	28,964
Professional	1	110	550	1,986	3,406
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers				2,169	4,811
Building and construction	**26**	**1,857**	**16,115**	**497,552**	**602,957**
Buildings, exclusive of PWA	22	1,674	14,384	411,912	418,764
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings)	4	183	1,731	85,640	184,193
Agriculture and fishing	**2**	**5,800**	**5,800**	**176,394**	**463,335**
Agriculture	2	5,800	5,800	42,712	194,652
Fishing				133,682	268,683
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects			**595**	**5,214**	**427,230**
Other nonmanufacturing industries	**7**	**1,570**	**8,140**	**57,711**	**29,639**

The State most affected by strikes in January 1941 as measured in terms of man-days of idleness was New York, with 91,000. A large portion of this idleness was due to the strike at the Leviton Manufacturing Co. in Brooklyn which started last August and was still in progress throughout January. There were 71,000 man-days of idleness because of strikes in Indiana, 66,000 in Wisconsin, and 51,000 in Ohio. Illinois, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and California also had a substantial amount of idleness caused by strikes.

The largest number of workers involved in new strikes during January in any State was about 17,000 in Illinois. The International

Harvester strike accounted for a large proportion of this total. Pennsylvania had nearly 9,000 workers involved in strikes, Indiana and Wisconsin had nearly 8,000, Ohio and California had about 7,000 each, and Michigan had 5,000.

The greatest number of new strikes during the month occurred in New York. New York's 34 new strikes were small on the average, however, and involved a total of only 3,250 workers. There were 24 new strikes in Pennsylvania during January, 22 in California, 19 in Ohio, 15 in Michigan, and 13 in Illinois.

During the 12-month period ending with January 1941, New York with 1,277,000 man-days had more idleness than any other State, Pennsylvania lost 924,000 man-days, and Illinois, California, and Washington each had between 400,000 and 500,000. In the preceding 12-month period (February 1939 to January 1940), Pennsylvania had more than 3,000,000 man-days of idleness because of strikes, Michigan and West Virginia each had more than 2,000,000, and Kentucky, New York, and California each had more than 1,000,000. The bituminous-coal stoppage of April and May 1939 was a factor in all of these States except New York and California.

The data in table 2 are not strictly comparable with the monthly figures published by the Bureau in the past. Heretofore the State figures have been published for only the local strikes in each State, while interstate strikes have been shown in a separate classification at the end of the table. In this table, however, each interstate strike has been counted as a separate strike in each State affected and the workers and man-days of idleness have been allocated to the respective States.

Although there was an average of 422 workers involved per strike in January, more than half (57 percent) of the strikes beginning in the month involved fewer than 100 workers each. The number of workers involved in 35 percent of the strikes ranged from 100 to 1,000, and 8 percent (17 strikes) involved 1,000 or more workers each. Only 2 strikes, as indicated in table 3, involved more than 5,000 workers. These were the Allis Chalmers Co. strike which involved 7,500 workers and the International Harvester Co. dispute in which about 15,000 workers were involved. In the latter, only about half the workers were involved during January as the strike did not spread to two of the company's plants until the latter part of February.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in January 1941, by States, With Comparative Man-Day Figures for Preceding Two Years*

State	January 1941			Number of man-days idle during 12-month period ending with—	
	Strikes beginning in month		Number of man-days idle during month	January 1941	January 1940
	Number	Workers involved			
All States	[1] 213	89,841	659,821	7,114,019	17,545,433
Alabama	6	4,513	28,879	59,814	483,110
Arizona	1	32	430	12,937	8,619
Arkansas			286	82,913	38,726
California	22	6,720	36,061	468,295	1,011,873
Colorado	1	19	437	3,231	74,020
Connecticut	6	3,658	5,935	70,495	96,380
Delaware	2	785	13,479	27,594	3,768
District of Columbia			98	18,594	64,839
Florida				95,983	80,294
Georgia	1	65	130	41,498	70,864
Idaho	1	59	1,145	4,030	1,558
Illinois	13	17,355	48,569	493,427	590,877
Indiana	9	7,927	71,383	336,549	383,669
Iowa	1	40	6,868	35,672	80,850
Kansas				8,977	30,000
Kentucky	4	229	9,759	74,932	1,236,317
Louisiana				47,069	25,980
Maine	1	850	880	6,297	9,009
Maryland	3	1,921	4,277	139,374	275,059
Massachusetts	10	916	6,321	255,047	315,664
Michigan	15	5,133	37,793	224,820	2,498,931
Minnesota	2	79	1,051	97,397	97,484
Mississippi	2	1,833	9,160	16,997	40,290
Missouri	4	753	6,195	255,276	247,705
Montana	1	27	378	7,419	21,179
Nebraska				1,616	13,393
Nevada				1,056	850
New Hampshire				6,696	10,776
New Jersey	10	4,627	21,857	386,223	509,323
New Mexico				6,041	20,540
New York	34	3,254	91,250	1,276,538	1,186,509
North Carolina	1	29	1,998	95,162	101,624
North Dakota			400	1,537	18,400
Ohio	19	7,105	50,735	363,593	763,152
Oklahoma	2	49	669	3,645	67,795
Oregon	4	1,157	22,867	139,261	134,933
Pennsylvania	24	8,810	46,573	924,379	3,021,189
Rhode Island	3	3,189	26,073	44,790	114,386
South Carolina	2	300	339	75,401	109,334
South Dakota				241	222
Tennessee	1	40	540	37,872	242,242
Texas	3	110	17,873	100,430	135,154
Utah				1,592	38,483
Vermont				2,921	8,180
Virginia	5	143	1,395	140,866	308,716
Washington			20,170	410,243	417,443
West Virginia	3	282	1,215	44,040	2,165,551
Wisconsin	4	7,832	66,353	165,089	350,173
Wyoming				150	20,000

[1] The sum of this column is more than 213. This is due to the fact that 7 strikes which extended across State lines have been counted, in this table, as separate strikes in each State affected, with the proper allocation of number of workers involved and man-days of idleness.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in January 1941, Classified by Industry Group and Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—							
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 250	250 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries	213	42	79	34	21	20	15	1	1
Manufacturing									
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	16	2	5	2	4	2	1		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	19		6	4	4	2	1	1	1
Transportation equipment	15	1	1	4		5	4		
Nonferrous metals and their products	5	2	1				2		
Lumber and allied products	13	3	5	2	1	2			
Stone, clay, and glass products	8		4	1	1		2		
Textiles and their products	20	4	7	4	3	1	1		
Leather and its manufactures	3				1	2			
Food and kindred products	12	1	7	2	1	1			
Paper and printing	5	2	1	1		1			
Chemicals and allied products	4	1	2	1					
Rubber products	3	1		1		1			
Miscellaneous manufacturing	6		3	2		1			
Nonmanufacturing									
Extraction of minerals	11		4	2	2	2	1		
Transportation and communication	10	3	6	1					
Trade	17	9	5	2	1				
Domestic and personal service	9	4	5						
Professional service	2		1	1					
Building and construction	26	8	12	3	3				
Agriculture and fishing	2						2		
Other nonmanufacturing industries	7	1	4	1			1		

In about half of the strikes beginning in January, involving slightly more than half the total workers involved, the major issues were union recognition, closed or union shop, discrimination or other important union organization matters. In some of the disputes in this group, wages and hours were involved also as secondary issues. Wages and hours were the major issues in 30 percent of the strikes which included 27 percent of the total workers involved. Demands for wage increases were by far the most prominent issues in the latter group. There were 18 jurisdictional and rival union strikes (8 percent of the total) which included about 6 percent of the total workers involved. Eleven percent of the strikes, including 15 percent of the total workers involved, were due to such matters as changes in work shifts, increased work loads, safety regulations, objection to certain supervisors, and overdue wages. The largest strike in the last-named group involved more than 3,000 workers in an Indiana auto-parts plant and was due to a dispute over the interpretation of the union agreement as to whether workers should receive pay for their 15-minute lunch period.

TABLE 4.—*Strikes Beginning in January 1941, by Major Issues Involved*

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	213	100.0	89,841	100.0
Wages and hours	64	30.0	24,516	27.3
Wage increase	54	25.3	22,712	25.3
Wage decrease	3	1.4	1,135	1.3
Wage increase, hour decrease	5	2.3	611	.7
Hour increase	1	.5	18	(1)
Hour decrease	1	.5	40	(1)
Union organization	105	49.3	46,053	51.2
Recognition	23	10.8	21,357	23.8
Recognition and wages	26	12.1	9,101	10.1
Recognition, wages, and hours	13	6.1	738	.8
Discrimination	18	8.5	3,900	4.3
Closed or union shop	20	9.4	10,069	11.2
Strengthening bargaining position	1	.5	75	.1
Other	4	1.9	813	.9
Miscellaneous	44	20.7	19,272	21.5
Sympathy	1	.5	11	(1)
Rival unions or factions	9	4.2	5,097	5.7
Jurisdiction [2]	9	4.2	366	.4
Other	24	11.3	13,701	15.3
Not reported	1	.5	97	.1

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.
[2] It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Owing to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

In table 5 the affiliations of the various unions involved in January strikes are indicated. A. F. of L. unions were involved in more than half (52 percent) of the strikes but these disputes were small on the average and included only 30 percent of the total workers involved. C. I. O. unions were involved in 36 percent of the total strikes—some of them large ones—which included 59 percent of the total workers involved. About 5 percent of the strikes occurred among unorganized workers. Among the largest strikes in the latter group was one involving about 400 workers of an Ohio shoe manufacturing company for increased wages.

TABLE 5.—*Strikes Beginning in January 1941, by Affiliations of Labor Organizations Involved*

Labor organization involved	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	213	100.0	89,841	100.0
American Federation of Labor	112	52.4	27,078	30.1
Congress of Industrial Organizations	77	36.2	53,037	59.2
Unaffiliated unions	4	1.9	3,082	3.4
Two rival unions	7	3.3	5,061	5.6
Company unions	1	.5	15	(1)
No organization	11	5.2	1,551	1.7
Not reported	1	.5	17	(1)

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Of the total of 322 strikes which were in progress during January, 204 were terminated during the month. The average duration of these strikes was approximately 24½ calendar days. About 41 percent of the strikes ended in less than a week after they began, 36 percent had been in progress from a week up to 1 month, 15 percent had been in progress from 1 to 3 months and 8 percent (17 strikes) had been in progress for 3 months or more. Most of these were small strikes, only three involving as many as 200 workers. The largest of the three, involving about 400 workers, was at the Ontario Manufacturing Co., in Muncie, Ind. This strike began in August 1940 and was settled with the signing of a new agreement late in January.

TABLE 6.—*Strikes Ending in January 1941, Classified by Industry Group and Duration*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	204	84	42	31	24	6	17
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	13	9	2	-------	1	-------	1
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	11	5	1	2	2	1	-------
Transportation equipment	15	6	7	1	1	-------	-------
Nonferrous metals and their products	4	3	-------	-------	-------	-------	1
Lumber and allied products	16	4	1	7	1	-------	3
Stone, clay, and glass products	9	3	3	1	-------	-------	2
Textiles and their products	18	6	3	5	1	1	2
Leather and its manufactures	1	-------	1	-------	-------	-------	-------
Food and kindred products	13	3	4	2	3	1	-------
Paper and printing	5	2	-------	2	1	-------	-------
Chemicals and allied products	2	2	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Rubber products	2	1	-------	-------	-------	-------	1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	10	2	-------	3	3	1	1
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	8	6	2	-------	-------	-------	-------
Transportation and communication	12	4	3	2	1	1	1
Trade	15	5	4	1	4	1	-------
Domestic and personal service	13	6	1	1	1	-------	4
Professional service	3	2	-------	1	-------	-------	-------
Building and construction	24	13	5	3	3	-------	-------
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects	1	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	1
Other nonmanufacturing industries	9	2	5	-------	2	-------	-------

Government officials assisted in settling about half (49 percent) of all strikes, including three-fifths of the total workers involved in the strikes ending in the month. One-third of the strikes were settled through direct negotiations between the employers and union officials. About 12 percent of the strikes, including less than 3 percent of the total workers involved, were terminated without formal settlements. In most of these cases the strikes were abandoned and the strikers resumed work without settlement of the disputed issues or they lost their jobs entirely when employers replaced them with new workers or discontinued business.

TABLE 7.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in January 1941*

Settlement negotiations carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	204	100.0	52,837	100.0
Employers and workers directly	5	2.5	295	.6
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	69	33.8	17,637	33.4
Government officials or boards	100	48.9	32,747	61.9
Private conciliators or arbitrators	4	2.0	876	1.7
Terminated without formal settlement	25	12.3	1,265	2.4
Not reported	1	.5	17	(1)

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

About 34 percent of the strikes ending in January were substantially won by the workers involved and 40 percent were settled on a compromise basis. Only 22 percent of the total workers involved were in the successful strikes as compared with 57½ percent in the strikes which were compromised. About 17 percent of the strikes, including nearly 13 percent of the total workers involved, resulted in little or no gains to the workers.

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in January 1941*

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	204	100.0	52,837	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	70	34.3	11,677	22.1
Partial gains or compromises	81	39.7	30,333	57.5
Little or no gains to workers	35	17.2	6,726	12.7
Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements	17	8.3	4,093	7.7
Indeterminate	1	.5	8	(1)

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Table 9 indicates that the wage-and-hour strikes ending in January were more successful from the workers' viewpoint than those in which union-organization-matters were the principal issues. About 37½ percent of the wage-and-hour strikes were substantially won, 52 percent were compromised, and 11 percent brought little or no gains to the workers involved. About 38 percent of the union organization strikes were substantially won, the same proportion were compromised, and 24 percent resulted in little or no gains.

Of the nearly 18,000 workers involved in strikes principally over wage-and-hour issues, 31 percent substantially won their demands, 65 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 4 percent gained little or nothing. Of the 17,500 workers involved in union-organization strikes, 28 percent substantially won what was demanded, 58½ percent obtained compromise settlements, and 14 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 9.—*Results of Strikes Ending in January 1941, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Strikes						
All issues	204	70	81	35	17	1	.....
Wages and hours	56	21	29	6	.....	.....	.....
Union organization	106	40	40	25	.....	1	.....
Miscellaneous	42	9	12	4	17	.....	.....
	Percentage distribution						
All issues	100.0	34.3	39.7	17.2	8.3	0.5	.....
Wages and hours	100.0	37.5	51.8	10.7	.....	.....	.....
Union organization	100.0	37.7	37.7	23.7	.....	.9	.....
Miscellaneous	100.0	21.4	28.6	9.5	40.5	.....	.....
	Workers involved						
All issues	52,837	11,677	30,333	6,726	4,093	8	.....
Wages and hours	17,989	5,591	11,637	761	.....	.....	.....
Union organization	17,494	4,830	10,221	2,435	.....	8	.....
Miscellaneous	17,354	1,256	8,475	3,530	4,093	.....	.....
	Percentage distribution						
All issues	100.0	22.1	57.5	12.7	7.7	(1)	.....
Wages and hours	100.0	31.1	64.7	4.2	.....	.....	.....
Union organization	100.0	27.6	58.5	13.9	.....	(1)	.....
Miscellaneous	100.0	7.2	48.9	20.3	23.6	.....	.....

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, MARCH 1941

THE United States Conciliation Service, in March, disposed of 473 situations, involving 219,011 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties.

Of these situations, 300 were strikes, threatened strikes, lockouts, and controversies, involving 204,217 workers. The remaining situations, involving 14,794 workers, included such services as

filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, consulting with labor and management, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and the employers in 37 States and the District of Columbia, and Hawaii (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, March 1941, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	300	204,217	173	14,794	473	219,011
Agriculture			1	1	1	1
Automobile	13	4,930	1	700	14	5,630
Building trades	41	48,040	34	1,539	75	49,579
Chemicals	12	6,836	2	3	14	6,839
Communications	1	33			1	33
Domestic and personal	7	361	12	161	19	522
Electrical equipment	15	9,005	7	21	22	9,026
Food	27	4,420	11	141	38	4,561
Furniture	12	1,850	5	481	17	2,331
Iron and steel	48	43,348	17	3,240	65	46,588
Lumber	10	1,744	3	86	13	1,830
Machinery	29	32,713	3	200	32	32,913
Maritime	1	420	3	104	4	524
Mining			1	1	1	1
Motion picture			2	2	2	2
Nonferrous metals	13	14,851	4	1,224	17	16,075
Paper	4	657	1	1	5	658
Petroleum	2	1,085	4	8	6	1,093
Printing	1	160	3	241	4	401
Professional			2	3	2	3
Rubber	5	674	1	1	6	675
Stone, clay, and glass	11	2,267	3	3	14	2,270
Textile	15	11,010	19	4,790	34	15,800
Tobacco	2	5,673			2	5,673
Trade	6	969	3	297	9	1,266
Transportation	8	941	8	586	16	1,527
Transportation equipment	9	8,079	4	55	13	8,134
Utilities	3	2,389			3	2,389
Unclassified	5	1,762	19	905	24	2,667

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, March 1941, by States*

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	300	204,217	173	14,794	473	219,011
Alabama	6	6,178	6	10	12	6,188
Arizona	2	370	1	2	3	372
Arkansas	1	16			1	16
California	22	2,419	11	661	33	3,080
Connecticut	4	12,145			4	12,145
District of Columbia	10	795	8	211	18	1,006
Florida	18	1,147	8	713	26	1,860
Georgia	1	250	3	1,033	4	1,283
Hawaii	1	365			1	365
Illinois	11	30,820	10	1,191	21	32,011
Indiana	10	2,449	8	1,420	18	3,869
Iowa	8	2,129	2	194	10	2,323
Kansas	2	40	1	4	3	44
Kentucky	6	7,539	3	3	9	7,542
Louisiana	11	20,464	6	27	17	20,491
Maine	2	960			2	960
Maryland	4	1,670	3	88	7	1,758
Massachusetts	4	183	5	3,200	9	3,383
Michigan	27	7,244	7	1,380	34	8,624
Minnesota			1	1	1	1
Mississippi	3	379			3	379
Missouri	11	2,627	7	77	18	2,704
Nevada	1	17			1	17
New Hampshire	1	700			1	700
New Jersey	16	13,078	2	701	18	13,779
New York	15	32,946	14	293	29	33,239
North Carolina	8	21,648	8	521	16	22,169
North Dakota			1	1	1	1
Ohio	30	6,784	22	1,248	52	8,032
Oregon	2	395	1	100	3	495
Pennsylvania	25	10,378	11	216	36	10,594
Rhode Island	1	220	2	975	3	1,195
South Carolina	3	3,750	1	1	4	3,751
Tennessee	10	2,560	8	96	18	2,656
Texas	8	2,483	4	269	12	2,752
Virginia	5	1,366	1	7	6	1,373
Washington	5	1,933	4	8	9	1,941
West Virginia	4	5,140	1	25	5	5,165
Wisconsin	2	630	3	118	5	748

STRIKES IN CANADA, 1914 TO 1940

IN 1940, strikes and lock-outs in Canada numbered 168, in which 60,619 workers were involved, and 266,318 man-working days were lost. The figures for the preceding year were 122 disputes, involving 41,038 workers, and a time loss of 224,588 man-working days.

The increases were for the most part reported for the textile, clothing, and metal-manufacturing industries. The number of disputes in coal mining increased from 48 in 1939 to 65 in 1940, but the number of workers involved was about the same in both years, while the time loss in 1940 was reduced to 68,734 days from 111,274 days in the previous 12 months.

The following table, recording the strikes and lock-outs in the Dominion from 1914 to 1940, inclusive, permits of some comparisons between two war periods.

Strikes and Lock-Outs in Canada, by Years, 1914–1940

Year	Number of disputes beginning during year	Disputes in existence during year									
		All industries				Coal mining			Industries other than coal mining		
		Number of disputes	Number of employers	Number of workers involved	Man-days lost	Number of disputes	Number of workers involved	Man-days lost	Number of disputes	Number of workers involved	Man-days lost
1914	58	63	261	9,717	490,850	3	2,500	280,800	60	7,217	210,050
1915	62	63	120	11,395	95,042	9	2,753	11,907	54	8,642	83,135
1916	118	120	332	26,538	236,814	8	11,270	72,387	112	15,268	164,427
1917	158	160	758	50,255	1,123,515	21	17,379	584,890	139	32,876	538,625
1918	228	230	782	79,743	647,942	46	22,920	130,696	184	56,823	517,246
1919	332	336	1,967	148,915	3,400,942	20	10,130	383,659	316	138,785	3,017,283
1920	310	322	1,374	60,327	799,524	35	12,128	99,920	287	48,199	699,604
1921	159	168	1,208	28,257	1,048,914	10	1,456	31,318	158	26,801	1,017,596
1922	89	104	732	43,775	[1] 1,528,661	21	26,475	795,548	83	17,300	730,113
1923	77	86	450	34,261	671,750	23	20,814	299,539	63	13,447	372,211
1924	64	70	435	34,310	1,295,054	15	21,201	1,089,484	55	13,109	205,570
1925	86	87	497	28,949	1,193,281	17	18,672	1,040,276	70	10,277	153,005
1926	75	77	512	23,834	266,601	16	8,445	35,193	61	15,389	231,408
1927	72	74	480	22,299	152,570	20	16,653	53,833	54	5,646	98,737
1928	96	98	548	17,581	224,212	14	5,033	88,000	84	12,548	136,212
1929	88	90	263	12,946	152,080	8	3,045	6,805	82	9,901	145,275
1930	67	67	338	13,768	91,797	15	6,228	24,183	52	7,540	67,614
1931	86	88	266	10,738	204,238	9	2,129	11,523	79	8,609	192,715
1932	111	116	497	23,390	255,000	33	8,540	132,766	83	14,850	122,234
1933	122	125	617	26,558	317,547	21	3,028	33,019	104	23,530	284,528
1934	189	191	1,100	45,800	574,519	26	11,461	91,459	165	34,339	483,060
1935	120	120	719	33,269	284,028	17	6,131	61,032	103	27,138	222,996
1936	155	156	709	34,812	276,997	22	8,655	56,766	134	26,157	220,231
1937	274	278	630	71,905	886,393	44	15,477	112,826	234	56,428	773,567
1938	142	147	614	20,395	148,678	25	5,054	21,366	122	15,341	127,312
1939	120	122	243	41,038	224,588	48	31,102	111,274	74	9,936	113,314
1940	166	168	894	60,619	266,318	65	31,223	68,734	103	29,396	197,584

[1] This should be 1,525,661 according to separate items reported, and was so given in the Canadian Labor Gazette of March 1939 (p. 251).

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, FEBRUARY 1941

CONTINUED demand for workers in the defense industries in February resulted in the highest accession rate in manufacturing establishments for any February since 1934. Returns from approximately 7,100 manufacturing establishments, with nearly 3,000,000 wage earners, showed an average accession rate of 4.92 per 100 employees on the pay roll. This rate was slightly lower than that reported for January 1941, principally as a result of the smaller number of working days in February. The lay-off rate, 1.20 per 100 employees, was the lowest for any month, with the exception of June 1933, since the Bureau of Labor Statistics began the publication of turn-over data in 1930. Notable decreases in lay-offs between January and February occurred

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 135 Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations:													
Quits:													
1941	1.31	1.33											
1940	.63	.62	0.67	0.74	0.77	0.78	0.85	1.10	1.37	1.31	1.10	0.99	0.91
Discharges:													
1941	.18	.19											
1940	.14	.16	.15	.13	.13	.14	.14	.16	.16	.19	.18	.16	.15
Lay-offs: [2]													
1941	1.61	1.20											
1940	2.55	2.67	2.53	2.69	2.78	2.32	2.25	1.63	1.48	1.53	1.60	1.86	2.16
Miscellaneous separations: [3]													
1941	.31	.43											
1940	.11	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.11	.11	.21	.20	.18	.15	.13
Total:													
1941	3.41	3.15											
1940	3.43	3.56	3.46	3.66	3.78	3.36	3.35	3.00	3.22	3.23	3.06	3.16	3.35
Accessions:													
Rehirings:													
1941	1.45	1.08											
1940	1.96	1.26	1.38	1.42	1.49	2.06	1.94	3.04	2.20	1.22	1.18	1.13	1.69
New hirings:													
1941	4.09	3.84											
1940	1.78	1.72	1.56	1.63	1.87	2.70	2.83	3.59	4.01	4.30	3.47	2.98	2.70
Total:													
1941	5.54	4.92											
1940	3.74	2.98	2.94	3.05	3.36	4.76	4.77	6.63	6.21	5.52	4.65	4.11	4.39

[1] The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.
[2] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.
[3] Beginning with September 1940, workers leaving to enter the Army or Navy are included in "miscellaneous separations."

in automobiles, cement, cigars and cigarettes, dyeing and finishing, planing mills, and shipbuilding. The highest lay-off rate was in slaughtering and meat packing in which a contraseasonal decline from 10.89 in January to 8.30 in February was shown. In February 1940 the lay-off rate in the industry stood at 8.72.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in 39 Manufacturing Industries* [1]

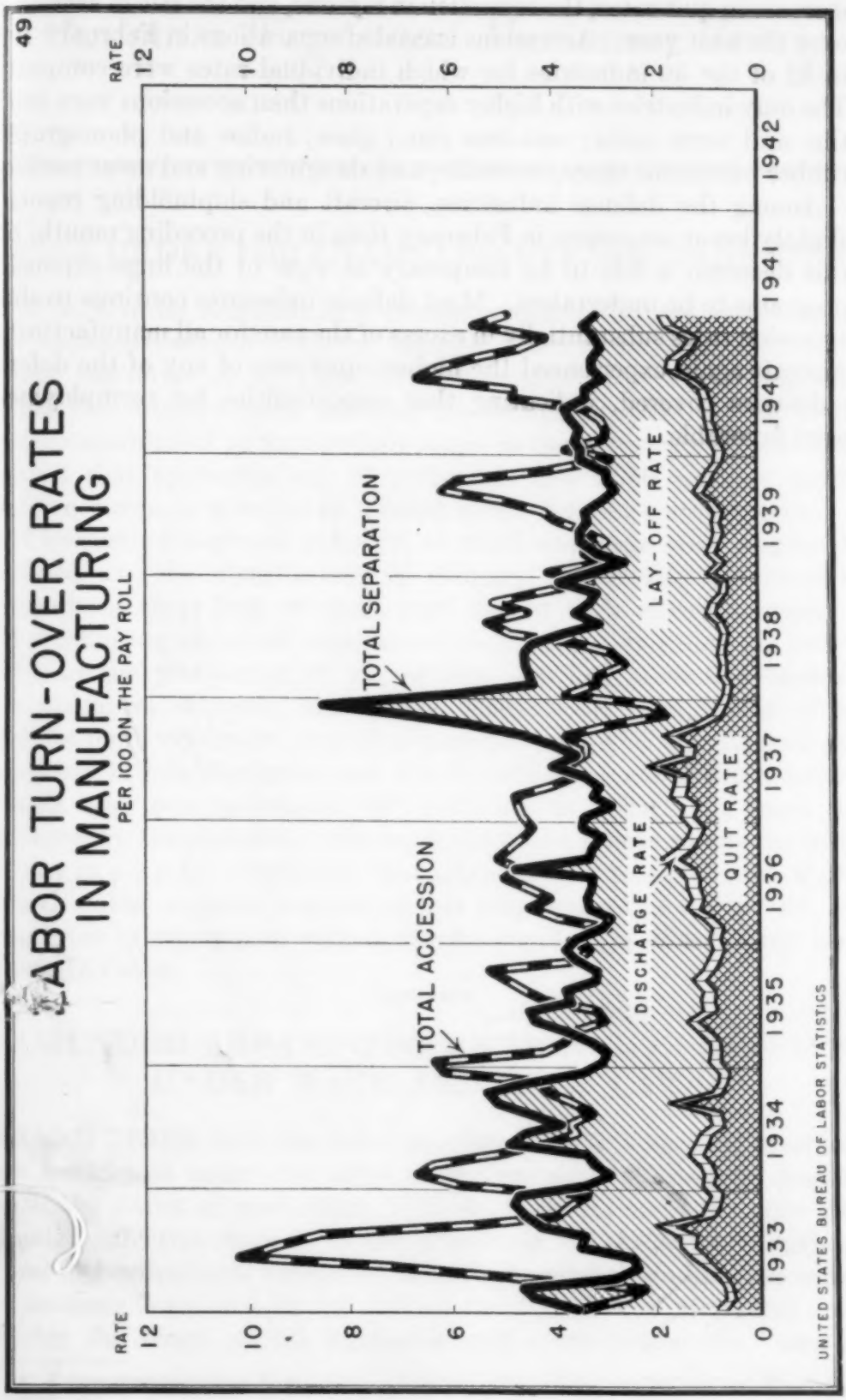
Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit [2]	Discharge	Lay-off	Misc. separation [3]	Total separation	Rehiring	New hiring	Total accession
Agricultural implements	February 1941	1.01	0.16	0.52	0.39	2.08	1.26	2.91	4.17
	January 1941	.81	.16	.42	.18	1.57	1.30	4.19	5.49
	February 1940	.42	.09	.82	.14	1.47	1.07	1.29	2.36
Aircraft	February 1941	2.21	.50	.24	.46	3.41	.42	7.30	7.72
	January 1941	2.44	.45	.33	.43	3.65	.68	11.49	12.17
	February 1940	1.80	.37	4.20	.01	6.38	1.01	5.91	6.92
Aluminum	February 1941	1.28	.23	1.13	1.76	4.40	1.40	4.06	5.46
	January 1941	1.28	.32	.42	1.17	3.19	.82	3.90	4.72
	February 1940	.45	.04	2.79	.32	3.60	1.07	2.15	3.22
Automobiles and bodies	February 1941	1.02	.06	.97	.48	2.53	1.14	2.65	3.79
	January 1941	1.00	.09	2.24	.32	3.65	1.67	1.40	3.07
	February 1940	.64	.05	1.61	.12	2.42	1.64	.71	2.35
Automobile parts and equipment	February 1941	1.41	.33	1.69	.37	3.80	1.28	4.92	6.20
	January 1941	1.41	.33	2.51	.36	4.61	1.64	5.37	7.01
	February 1940	.70	.25	7.46	.15	8.56	1.44	1.97	3.41
Boots and shoes	February 1941	1.07	.19	.67	.30	2.23	1.34	3.03	4.37
	January 1941	.93	.17	.84	.15	2.09	1.71	3.58	5.29
	February 1940	.61	.14	1.29	.04	2.08	1.20	1.42	2.62
Brass, bronze, and copper products	February 1941	1.42	.25	.81	.49	2.97	.77	5.13	5.90
	January 1941	1.45	.20	.81	.45	2.91	.67	5.91	6.58
	February 1940	.47	.06	5.40	.08	6.01	.76	.73	1.49
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	February 1941	1.19	.10	3.62	.34	5.25	1.04	3.74	4.78
	January 1941	1.71	.19	2.56	.27	4.73	1.09	3.88	4.92
	February 1940	.35	.06	6.80	.16	7.37	2.94	1.85	4.79
Cast-iron pipe	February 1941	1.09	.17	1.31	.36	2.93	.44	1.96	2.40
	January 1941	.73	.33	.52	.11	1.69	.33	1.85	2.18
	February 1940	.40	.11	.83	.23	1.57	.87	.54	1.41
Cement	February 1941	.46	.06	4.75	.42	5.69	3.68	2.12	5.80
	January 1941	.56	.06	9.38	.26	10.26	1.24	1.32	2.56
	February 1940	.08	.12	4.88	.09	5.17	5.89	.77	6.66
Cigars and cigarettes	February 1941	1.77	.08	.63	.20	2.68	2.79	1.47	4.26
	January 1941	2.92	.11	2.75	.34	6.12	3.86	1.85	5.71
	February 1940	.88	.14	.78	.25	2.05	2.40	.89	3.29
Cotton manufacturing	February 1941	2.53	.29	.95	.40	4.17	1.10	4.18	5.28
	January 1941	2.35	.26	1.12	.34	4.07	1.31	4.74	6.05
	February 1940	1.09	.20	2.61	.20	4.10	1.03	1.95	2.98
Dyeing and finishing textiles	February 1941	2.25	.24	.95	.65	4.09	1.05	4.50	5.55
	January 1941	2.19	.16	1.77	.45	4.57	1.08	3.63	4.71
	February 1940	.64	.15	2.92	.25	3.96	.88	1.44	2.32
Electrical machinery	February 1941	1.05	.15	.37	.63	2.20	.43	5.88	6.31
	January 1941	1.14	.18	.80	.59	2.71	.89	6.86	7.75
	February 1940	.43	.08	1.48	.23	2.22	.80	2.21	3.01
Foundries and machine shops	February 1941	1.50	.37	1.04	.46	3.37	.55	6.07	6.62
	January 1941	1.47	.38	.75	.39	2.99	.96	7.22	8.18
	February 1940	.51	.17	2.26	.09	3.03	.50	1.81	2.31
Furniture	February 1941	1.60	.19	2.21	.33	4.33	1.30	3.27	4.57
	January 1941	1.67	.23	2.80	.38	5.08	2.10	3.41	5.51
	February 1940	.67	.30	3.43	.12	4.52	1.15	1.74	2.89
Glass	February 1941	.94	.09	2.06	.50	3.59	.83	2.52	3.35
	January 1941	.72	.19	1.65	.48	3.04	.81	2.66	3.47
	February 1940	.30	.12	1.95	.07	2.44	1.02	.51	1.53
Hardware	February 1941	2.28	.33	1.01	.66	4.28	.81	4.73	5.54
	January 1941	2.86	.23	1.20	.18	4.47	.40	6.52	6.92
	February 1940	.55	.12	2.12	.05	2.84	.17	.79	.96
Iron and steel	February 1941	.76	.09	.27	.43	1.55	.38	2.37	2.75
	January 1941	.69	.09	.30	.39	1.47	.51	2.78	3.29
	February 1940	.37	.20	3.53	.13	4.23	.35	.31	.66

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in 39 Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit [2]	Discharge	Lay-off	Misc. separation [2]	Total separation	Rehiring	New hiring	Total accession
Knit goods	February 1941	1.43	0.09	1.21	0.13	2.86	0.99	1.88	2.87
	January 1941	1.30	.08	1.70	.18	3.26	.69	2.42	3.11
	February 1940	.64	.15	1.50	.07	2.45	1.21	1.35	2.56
Machine tools	February 1941	1.58	.37	.13	.34	2.42	.43	4.37	4.80
	January 1941	1.77	.31	.09	.27	2.44	.37	6.31	6.68
	February 1940	.98	.53	.47	.10	2.08	.24	4.86	5.10
Men's clothing	February 1941	1.24	.25	1.04	.13	2.66	1.18	3.17	4.35
	January 1941	1.21	.24	1.37	.10	2.92	3.98	3.34	7.32
	February 1940	.61	.09	1.19	.07	1.96	1.28	1.56	2.84
Paints and varnishes	February 1941	.89	.25	.80	.45	2.39	.50	3.80	4.30
	January 1941	.86	.27	.49	.26	1.88	1.39	1.93	3.32
	February 1940	.44	.12	1.62	.07	2.25	.25	1.39	1.64
Paper and pulp	February 1941	.75	.12	.59	.49	1.95	.44	2.25	2.69
	January 1941	.77	.13	.55	.27	1.72	.49	2.02	2.51
	February 1940	.42	.13	.95	.14	1.64	.49	.81	1.30
Petroleum refining	February 1941	.52	.06	.80	.30	1.68	.74	1.61	2.35
	January 1941	.42	.05	1.26	.19	1.92	.48	.45	.93
	February 1940	.16	.17	.82	.10	1.25	.86	.90	1.76
Planing mills	February 1941	1.73	.35	1.03	.51	3.62	1.37	2.47	3.84
	January 1941	1.44	.20	3.51	.25	5.40	.80	3.00	3.80
	February 1940	.65	.31	2.49	.06	3.51	1.31	.97	2.28
Printing: Book and job	February 1941	.84	.14	2.81	.34	4.13	2.18	2.73	4.91
	January 1941	1.48	.32	3.58	.25	5.63	1.60	3.19	4.79
	February 1940	.39	.23	3.78	.09	4.49	2.81	1.55	4.36
Printing: Newspapers and periodicals	February 1941	.28	.03	1.07	.26	1.64	1.09	1.23	2.32
	January 1941	.32	.07	2.37	.18	2.94	.94	.91	1.85
	February 1940	.21	.09	1.21	.06	1.57	1.26	1.38	2.64
Radios and phonographs	February 1941	1.77	.07	5.36	.32	7.52	1.43	3.11	4.54
	January 1941	1.57	.16	4.22	.19	6.14	1.58	2.06	3.64
	February 1940	1.28	.18	8.99	.02	10.47	1.92	1.37	3.29
Rayon and allied products	February 1941	1.06	.15	.30	.74	2.25	1.22	2.47	3.69
	January 1941	.79	.15	.19	.19	1.32	1.64	1.38	3.02
	February 1940	.33	.11	.89	.05	1.38	.87	.79	1.66
Rubber boots and shoes	February 1941	1.44	.35	3.06	.61	5.45	.98	2.12	3.10
	January 1941	1.97	.17	2.29	.22	4.65	.52	2.15	2.67
	February 1940	.52	.06	3.99	.34	4.91	.74	.22	.96
Rubber tires	February 1941	.71	.05	.28	.36	1.40	1.78	2.07	3.85
	January 1941	.77	.05	.84	.29	1.95	.60	3.87	4.47
	February 1940	.23	.03	1.56	.09	1.91	.56	.28	.84
Sawmills	February 1941	1.52	.17	2.79	.35	4.83	1.62	2.44	4.06
	January 1941	1.33	.17	2.94	.22	4.66	1.85	2.53	4.38
	February 1940	.84	.20	3.13	.10	4.27	2.31	2.07	4.38
Shipbuilding	February 1941	1.85	.36	1.21	2.71	6.13	2.70	8.34	11.04
	January 1941	1.93	.41	4.78	.79	7.91	5.71	12.50	18.21
	February 1940	.70	.16	3.47	.06	4.39	2.43	4.17	6.60
Silk and rayon goods	February 1941	1.50	.21	2.22	.34	4.27	1.60	2.93	4.53
	January 1941	1.94	.13	1.58	.18	3.83	2.08	2.22	4.30
	February 1940	.85	.08	4.18	.03	5.14	1.68	.87	2.55
Slaughtering and meat packing	February 1941	.82	.15	8.30	.68	9.95	5.25	1.25	6.50
	January 1941	.98	.25	10.89	.31	12.43	5.87	1.34	7.21
	February 1940	.42	.22	8.72	.23	9.59	3.65	1.25	4.90
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus	February 1941	2.05	.21	.62	.55	3.43	.67	3.50	4.17
	January 1941	1.57	.28	.38	.33	2.56	.44	4.14	4.58
	February 1940	.40	.09	1.07	.09	1.65	.89	1.31	2.20
Structural and ornamental metal work	February 1941	1.27	.18	1.19	.58	3.22	.73	6.88	7.61
	January 1941	1.30	.22	1.73	.23	3.48	.64	5.71	6.35
	February 1940	.33	.15	5.66	.07	6.21	2.04	1.98	4.02
Woolen and worsted goods	February 1941	2.17	.14	1.27	.49	4.07	1.97	4.55	6.52
	January 1941	2.43	.15	.88	.35	3.81	1.60	3.70	5.30
	February 1940	.81	.18	7.87	.20	9.06	1.81	1.66	3.47

[1] No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.
[2] Beginning with September 1940, workers leaving to enter the Army or Navy are included in "miscellaneous separations."


49
LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
TOTAL SEPARATION
TOTAL ACCESSION
DISCHARGE RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
QUIT RATE
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
1939
1940
1941
1942
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

The generally improved industrial situation is reflected by the sharp increase in quit rates, the reduction in lay-offs, and the rise in accessions over the past year. Accessions exceeded separations in February 1941 in 32 of the 39 industries for which individual rates were computed. The only industries with higher separations than accessions were brick, tile, and terra cotta; cast-iron pipe; glass; radios and phonographs; rubber boots and shoes; sawmills; and slaughtering and meat packing.

Among the defense industries, aircraft and shipbuilding reported slightly lower accessions in February than in the preceding month, but this decrease is felt to be temporary in view of the huge expansion programs to be undertaken. Most defense industries continue to show accession rates substantially in excess of the rate for all manufacturing. Aircraft again experienced the highest quit rate of any of the defense industries covered, indicating that opportunities for reemployment were favorable.

Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

WAGE ORDER FOR ENAMELED-UTENSIL INDUSTRY

A WAGE order establishing a 40-cent minimum hourly wage rate in the enameled-utensil industry became effective on April 21, 1941, under the terms of the Fair Labor Standards Act.[1] In issuing this order the Administrator followed the recommendation of the committee established to inquire into wages in the industry. It was estimated that approximately 20 percent of the 6,200 workers would receive increases in wages as a result of the Administrator's action.

The enameled-utensil industry, to which the wage order applies, is defined as "the manufacture of culinary, household, and hospital utensils of sheet iron or sheet steel coated with vitreous enamel." The definition covers all occupations in the industry which are necessary to the production of the articles specified, including clerical, maintenance, shipping, and selling occupations. Employees of an independent wholesaler and of a manufacturer who are engaged exclusively in manufacturing and distributing products of the industry which have been purchased for resale are excluded. An employee covered by the definition who works at two or more minimum rates of pay in a week is entitled to the highest of such rates for such workweek, unless records concerning his employment are kept by his employer in accordance with applicable regulations of the Wage and Hour Division.

AMENDED AREA-OF-PRODUCTION REGULATIONS UNDER WAGE AND HOUR LAW [2]

EXEMPTIONS from the labor provisions of the wage and hour law are broadened under the terms of the amended regulations dealing with the "area of production." A single definition of the term was applied, effective April 1, to the processing, off the farm, of agricultural or horticultural commodities, including dairy products, specified in sections 7 (c) and 13 (a) (10) of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Under the terms of this legislation employees within the "area of

[1] U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour Division. Press releases Nos. 1337 and 1338, Washington, April 21, 1941.

[2] Idem, Press releases Nos. 1313 and 1314, Washington, March 17 and 18, 1941.

production," as defined by the Administrator are exempt from the hours provisions under section 7 (c) and from both the minimum-wage and maximum-hours provisions under section 13 (a) (10) in the processing of certain specified agricultural commodities.

Employees in establishments employing 10 or fewer employees in the exempt operations, and drawing the commodities from farms in the "general vicinity," are exempt under the new definition. No other establishments are classified as within the "area of production." Formerly the "area of production" was limited to (1) establishments in towns of less than 2,500 population, receiving their commodities from farms within 10 miles of such establishments; and (2) establishments employing not more than 7 employees in the exempt operations.

As a result of the Administrator's changes in regulations, the definition previously issued for fresh fruits and vegetables is applicable to all agricultural and horticultural commodities. The amended regulations also continue in effect the definitions previously issued for dry edible beans and Puerto Rican leaf tobacco. This applies pending possible future investigation and revision. The regulations were issued following the holding of hearings in the prescribed manner.

In the opinion of the Administrator the new regulations "will produce a minimum of discrimination and economic dislocation between competitors engaged in similar operations and between the same classes of labor." They are expected to aid in carrying out the declared purpose of the wage and hour law to eliminate substandard working conditions.

DETERMINATION OF LENGTH OF WORKDAY IN METAL MINES

THE workday in underground metal mining starts when the miner reports for duty as required, at or near the collar of the mine, and ends when he reaches the collar at the close of the shift—for purposes of calculating the 40-hour week under the terms of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.[1] According to the decision of the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division, the effective date for applying this construction of "hours worked" in the industry was fixed as May 1, 1941. More than 100,000 miners are employed in the industries affected.

Time spent on the surface in obtaining and returning lamps, carbide, and tools, and in checking in and out, is also a part of the working day. Any fixed lunch period of one-half hour or more during which the miner is relieved of all duties is excluded from the calculation of the workday, even though the lunch period is spent underground.

[1] U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour Division, Press releases Nos. 1315 and 1341, dated March 23 and 31, 1941, Washington.

The practices of the metal-mining industry are unusual and the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division has frequently been asked for an opinion on hours worked. Therefore, an investigation was conducted by field survey and questionnaire and a decision was reached on the basis of the facts obtained.

WAGE ORDER FOR CANNING INDUSTRY OF PUERTO RICO

RECOMMENDATIONS of a special industry committee for minimum-wage rates in the vegetable, fruit, and fruit-juice canning industry in Puerto Rico were approved by the Administrator to be effective March 22, 1941. The order provides that wages at a rate of not less than 16 cents an hour shall be paid under section 6 of the Fair Labor Standards Act by every employer to each of his employees in this industry in Puerto Rico, who is engaged in commerce or in the production of goods for commerce.

REFUSAL OF INCREASE IN BASIC WAGE IN AUSTRALIA[1]

AN APPLICATION made by the labor unions of Australia for an increase in the basic wage, the minimum standard in establishing industrial awards and agreements, has been refused by the Commonwealth Arbitration Court.[2] The Court held on February 7 that under prevailing war conditions the real struggle in the near future will be to maintain and not to raise existing standards by holding to the present adjustment of wages by increased cost of living. However, the application will be given further consideration after June 30, 1941.

Chief Judge Sir George Beeby of the Arbitration Court expressed concern regarding the new evidence and argument presented as to the inadequacy of the earnings of the lower-grade wage earners with families. He stated that, under accepted standards of living, the existing basic wage is adequate for a family unit of three but offers only a meager existence for a family unit of four. In larger families hardship is often experienced. A basic wage adjusted to family size would be a more logical system, according to the Chief Judge. He advocated a reapportionment of national income sufficient to increase the wages of men and women with more than one dependent child,

[1] Data are from The Australian Worker (Sydney), February 12, 1941.

[2] For a discussion of the method of establishing the basic wage see the Monthly Labor Review for May 1940 (p. 1230).

in the interest of the Commonwealth. Relief afforded to those needing it would more than offset the inflationary tendency of provision for a comprehensive scheme of child endowment.

A survey of all industries, the Chief Judge added, shows that the economic outlook of the Commonwealth is less favorable than in 1937, when the last declaration of a basic wage was made.[3] Profits from company operations have risen slightly but the insecurity arising from war conditions has depressed the value of company stocks markedly.

Grave consideration was given by Judge Piper to the question whether the Arbitration Court should act on the dominant principle that the basic wage be assessed on the needs of the family unit. He concluded that the real guide must be industry's capacity to pay. He did not intend his judgment to be a decision that there would be no justification for a rise in the basic wage in the war period. He advocated that when the question again came up the parties should obtain evidence from independent persons as to the extent of the danger of inflation and the ability of Australia to produce the wage earners' requirements without interference with the war effort.

The third participant in the decision, Judge O'Mara, held that the solution of the difficulties of the worker with a large family lay in a system of child endowment and not in indiscriminate wage increases. Under the existing basic wage the highest standard of living ever secured under a Court award was prescribed, real wages reached their highest level, and employees have secured the benefit of a shorter workweek and a period of paid leisure.

Labor has protested the Court's decision as disappointing, a spokesman maintaining that the general structure of industry and the all-round improvement in productive capacity warranted an improved standard. The decision was to be discussed at a Labor Party meeting in March.

[3] For a discussion of this action see the Monthly Labor Review for September 1937 (p. 697).

Wages and Hours of Labor

HOURLY EARNINGS IN CONVERTED PAPER PRODUCTS INDUSTRY, JANUARY 1940 [1]

Summary

HOURLY earnings of wage earners in the converted paper products industry averaged 54.6 cents in January 1940. This was revealed by a survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the early part of that year. Of the 59,879 workers covered by the survey, 5.7 percent earned exactly 30 cents per hour, the legal minimum at the time of the survey, while 22.5 percent earned less than 40 cents. Males averaged 61.5 cents, as compared with 41.6 cents for females.

General averages, however, convey little information about the wage structure in this industry, which is in reality a combination of separate industry groups. The variety of wage levels among the several groups is indicated by the fact that average hourly earnings ranged from 79.8 cents in plants making automobile panel boards to 45.7 cents in plants making twisted paper products. Evidence of product variation is also supplied by the fact that the ratio of male to female employees ranged from 15 to 1 in plants making sandpaper to about 1 to 2 in set-up paper-box plants.

Definition of the Industry

For the purposes of this study, the definition of the converted paper products industry conforms closely to that adopted by the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division, at whose request the study was undertaken. The Administrator has defined the industry to include "the manufacture of all products which have as a basic component, pulp, paper, or paperboard, and the manufacture of all like products in which synthetic materials such as cellophane, pliofilm, or synthetic resin used in sheet form is a basic component." For the purpose of establishing a minimum wage, the Administrator further limited this definition by the specific exclusion of the following products: Pulp and primary paper, carpets and rugs, luggage, basic rayon, cellophane, and similar substances, wall paper, roofing paper, insulation board, shingles, and lampshades. In addition, the defini-

[1] Prepared by H. E. Riley, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics. This article is a summary of a more detailed report which may be obtained from the Bureau on request.

tion was modified to exclude materials and articles covered by the Administrator's definition of the textile and apparel industries, as well as printed material "in which graphic art is an exclusive medium which the products function."

The scope of the survey differed from this definition in certain minor respects. Thus, both playing cards and book matches were excluded from the field survey, although the Administrator's definition has been interpreted specifically to cover these items. Certain other products covered by the definition, such as paper toys, party goods and games, were surveyed only in part.

The scope of the survey also differed in several respects from that of the converted paper products industry as defined by the United States Census of Manufactures. Thus, the Census definition includes playing cards, which, as is pointed out above, were not covered by the survey. On the other hand, certain products included in the survey are classified by the Census in other industries.[2] The Census definition specifically excludes paper bags made in primary paper mills, while the survey covered all types of paper-bag production, whether in independent converting establishments or in converting departments of paper mills. Finally, it should be noted that the survey included wage data for employees in paper-converting departments of establishments whose principal products were made of other materials than paper. Although the Census report on value of paper products includes the output of these plants, data covering their employment and wage payments are for the most part not segregated, but are hidden in the figures of other industries.

Size of Industry

According to the preliminary Census reports, the total value of products of the industry covered by the survey amounted to well over one billion dollars in 1939. It is apparent from the following tabulation that a large part of the total product was manufactured in the industry designated by the Census as "converted paper products."

Census classification	*Value of product, 1939* [1]
Converted paper products	$1,030,287,289
Abrasive wheels, stones, paper, cloth, and related products	9,028,252
Carbon paper and inked ribbon	11,727,097
Bookbinding and related industries	102,591,313
Photographic apparatus and materials and projection equipment (except lenses)	21,117,214
Total	1,174,751,165

[1] Source: United States Census of Manufactures, preliminary releases. The value of products shown include only the products in the scope of the survey.

[2] The Census includes sandpaper in the "abrasive wheels, stones, paper, cloth, and related products" industry, carbon paper in the "carbon paper and inked ribbon" industry, blank books and loose-leaf forms in "bookbinding and related industries," and sensitized paper in the "photographic apparatus and materials and projection equipment (except lenses)" industry.

Although the above total gives a fairly adequate indication of the size of the industry as measured by the value of its products, the Census reports do not contain comparable figures on number of wage earners or amount of wage payments. This is due to the fact that reporting establishments do not, as a rule, furnish separate employment and pay-roll figures corresponding to their various products. As a substantial proportion of the total output of converted paper products is made in plants whose chief products are made of other materials than paper, the Census reports do not supply a dependable basis for estimating employment in the manufacture of the products included in the survey. It is believed, however, that this number exceeds 150,000.

The manufacture of paper products has occupied an increasingly important place in the industrial picture. Paper has been introduced as a substitute for wood, metal, glass, and fabrics, in the manufacture of such different articles as shipping boxes, automobile body parts, hats, towels, bags, and containers for liquids.

Some idea of the growth of the paper-converting industry in recent years may be obtained by examining table 1, which presents selected Census data on the production of paper and paperboard. The increase in paperboard production reflected in this tabulation is especially significant in view of the fact that most of the paperboard is converted into products covered by this survey.[3] In the quarter century from 1904 to 1929 the production of paper and paperboard tripled in volume, increasing from 3,107,000 to 11,140,000 tons. The production of paperboard, however, increased nearly 700 percent during that period, as compared with an increase of only about 160 percent for paper. Between 1929 and 1939 the output of paper showed a gain of only about 10 percent, whereas the production of paperboard increased by over 37 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Production of Paper and Paperboard, 1904 to 1939* [1]

Year	Amount (thousands of tons)			Year	Amount (thousands of tons)		
	Total	Paper	Paperboard		Total	Paper	Paperboard
1904	3,107	2,547	560	1930	10,169	6,108	4,061
1909	4,122	3,239	883	1931	9,382	5,534	3,848
1914	5,153	3,861	1,292	1933	9,190	5,114	4,076
1919	5,966	4,099	1,867	1934	9,187	5,114	4,073
1921	5,333	3,593	1,740	1935	10,479	5,783	4,696
1923	7,871	5,078	2,793	1936	11,976	6,521	5,455
1925	8,986	5,699	3,287	1937	12,837	7,035	5,802
1927	10,002	6,228	3,774	1938	11,381	6,277	5,104
1928	10,403	6,341	4,062	1939	13,493	7,388	6,105
1929	11,140	6,689	4,451				

[1] Source: United States Census of Manufactures.

[3] On the basis of the Census reports on consumption of paperboard by type of product, it is estimated that approximately 5,250,000 of the 5,802,000 tons of paperboard produced in 1937 were used in the manufacture of products included in the survey.

The Federal Reserve Board index of paperboard-container production affords evidence of the increase in output of one of the most important converted paper products. With 1935–39 average production as a base, the Federal Reserve index increased from 37 in 1923 to 118 in 1939. Each year in this 16-year series, with the exception of the 4 years, 1930, 1931, 1932, and 1938, showed a higher index than for any preceding year.

Method of Survey

The data on earnings and hours of work that form the basis of this report were obtained through a field survey conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the early part of 1940. In accordance with the Bureau's usual practice, this information was collected by field representatives, who visited the selected establishments and obtained the data from pay rolls and other plant records. Supplementary information covering nature of product, type of establishment, extent of labor organization, and so forth, was obtained through interviews with plant officials.

The survey included approximately one-third of the wage earners in the industry. These workers were employed in a representative group of establishments selected for careful study. In selecting these plants, consideration was given to all significant characteristics, including type of product, geographical location, corporate affiliation, size of plant, size of community, type of plant, and unionization. In order to obtain adequate representation with respect to each of these factors, and at the same time avoid overrepresentation of the large plants, it was necessary to sample only a portion of the employees in some of the larger establishments. The workers selected for study in these plants constituted a cross section of the entire labor force.

The data presented here cover all classes of wage earners in each establishment, with the exception of the higher plant supervisors and management officials, and office clerical employees. For each person scheduled the Bureau obtained a record of the number of hours worked and the total earnings for a selected pay-roll period. In transcribing the pay-roll figures, earnings at regular rates of pay were separated from payments at extra rates for overtime work, and the latter have been excluded from the data dealt with in this report. Consequently, it must be borne in mind that the figures shown do not, in all cases, reflect the employees' total earnings, since a number of the workers received payments at extra rates for time worked beyond the basic hours.[4]

[4] At the time of the survey the Fair Labor Standards Act required the payment of time and one-half only for time worked beyond 42 hours per week, but a number of the plants paid extra rates for time worked beyond 40 hours per week.

For most of the plants, data were secured for a pay-roll period during the months of January or February 1940. The schedules for some establishments, however, cover a pay-roll period during the months of November and December 1939.

Description of Sample

TYPE OF PRODUCT

As earlier discussion has indicated, the converted paper products industry manufactures a wide variety of articles having few characteristics in common. So diverse are these products as well as the conditions under which they are manufactured that a general picture of the wage structure of the entire industry has little meaning.[5] Accordingly, the plants dealt with in this report have been classified into 29 broad groups; these include 28 fairly distinct product categories and one miscellaneous group which embraces plants making products not elsewhere classifiable and not sufficiently important to warrant separate consideration. A brief description of these product groups follows:

Adding machine rolls and similar products.—This classification covers plain rolls of medium- to heavy-weight papers, including adding-machine and cash-register paper and plain rolled wrapping papers. Printing, lithographing, embossing, and similar operations are not usually involved in making these products.

Auto panel board.—Auto panel boards consist chiefly of the heavy paperboard which is coated, embossed or otherwise processed to be used for linings, glove compartments, and other similar parts of automobiles. Some of the establishments making panel board also manufacture insulation felts for the automobile industry.

Blank books, tablets, and index cards.—The establishments comprising this branch are engaged in the manufacture of a wide variety of products, such as loose-leaf binders and fillers, notebooks, scratch pads, ruled tablets, ruled and unruled cards, etc.

Cans, tubes, cores, and related products.—Cans, tubes, and cores are usually made of spiral-wound stock. The cans are used as containers for liquids, cereals, butter, and similar substances. The tubes, cores, and spools made by these plants are widely used in the textile industry for packaging yarns. This group of products also includes mailing tubes and drinking straws.

Carbon paper.—Carbon paper is made by coating a tissue base with substances containing lamp black or coloring matter. Various kinds are used for making typewriter duplicates or for use in sales books and autographic registers. (The manufacture of carbon paper is quite commonly combined with the production of typewriter ribbons. Wherever possible, however, the workers employed in making typewriter ribbons were excluded from the coverage of the survey.)

Commercial envelopes.—This product includes virtually all envelopes except the expanding types and those manufactured in stationery establishments to be sold as fancy boxed social stationery. In view of the fact that a majority of the commercial-envelope producers also make the specialized type of set-up boxes in which the envelopes are sold, the manufacture of such boxes has been included in this classification.

[5] The separate identities of the various paper-converting industries were recognized during the NRA period, when over 25 different codes were in effect for products covered by the present survey.

Corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers.—The products in this category include the heavy boxes employed for shipping purposes; also corrugated wrapping materials, which are commonly made in the container factories. As measured by number of employees, this is the largest branch of the converted paper products industry.

Die-cut specialties.—Die-cut specialties include such products as cardboard cut-outs used for window and counter displays. Most of these products contain a considerable amount of printing and lithographing.

Expanding envelopes and related products.—The chief products falling in this category are heavy filing folders or wallets, most commonly made of a special, reddish-colored paper or board. These products are usually reinforced with cloth tapes.

Folding paper boxes.—This product group, which is one of the most important branches of the industry, manufactures in wide variety containers which are made from a single piece of paperboard, suitably cut, scored, and folded. For some purposes these containers are reinforced with staples or glue. Plants making the paraffin-coated boxes widely used for milk, butter, ice cream, and other foods are also included.[5]

Glazed and fancy paper.—The manufacture of glazed and fancy paper embraces primarily the coating, calendering, and other processing of purchased paper stock to make a highly finished paper, which is most commonly used in covering set-up paper boxes.

Gummed paper.—These products are made both by manufacturers engaged in coating papers with adhesive substances and by other establishments in which these gummed papers are finished or packaged for the retail trade. The final products include such items as adhesive wrapping tapes and gummed papers used for "staying" set-up boxes and shipping containers.

Lace-paper and fluted-paper products.—This group includes fluted-paper candy cups, finger-bowl linings, cake cups, cake circles, and similar items, as well as decorative lace paper. The operations used in their manufacture include die-cutting, stamping, crimping, and embossing.

Milk-bottle caps and hoods.—This group includes both the plain circular milk-bottle caps and the sanitary hoods or closures. These products are made by relatively simple stamping or punch-pressing operations.

Miscellaneous rolls and wrapping specialties.—These products consist chiefly of fancy wrapping papers, which are processed by various coating, printing, and embossing operations. The preparation of sheet cellophane wrapping materials is also covered by this classification.

Paper, cellophane, and glassine bags.—The most important container in this class is the common brown-paper grocer's bag. Also included are cellophane and glassine candy bags, coffee bags, shipping bags, millinery bags, dry-cleaners' bags, and similar items.

Paper cups.—Paper cups include round, conical, and flat drinking cups. In general, they may be distinguished from cans and similar containers by the fact that they are not provided with lids and that they are easily packed.

Photo mounts.—This group includes a number of small but rather highly specialized establishments that produce decorative frames and cardboard mounts for photographs.

Sandpaper.—The manufacture of sandpaper involves the coating of a special paper with an abrasive material such as powdered carborundum. Sandpaper is commonly made in plants that also make grinding wheels and other abrasive products.

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[5] See United States Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 620 (Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions in the Folding Paper Box Industry) for a description of manufacturing processes.

Sensitized paper.—This group includes standard photographic printing paper, as well as blue-print and brown-print papers, made by coating paper stock with a light-sensitive substance. The most important producers of photographic papers also make films, cameras, and other photographic supplies.

Set-up paper boxes.—Set-up boxes are distinguished from other boxes by the fact that they are "stayed" or held together by an outside paper cover or corner stays.[7] Shoe boxes and hat boxes are products included in this group.

In number of establishments this is the largest branch of the converted paper products industry. As the average size of these plants is relatively small, however, this branch does not provide the largest volume of employment.

Shipping sacks.—Shipping sacks are large bags used for packaging cement, grains, minerals, vegetables, and similar materials. A majority of the shipping sacks are of multiwalled construction. Some are made of cloth-reinforced paper or waterproof paper. Several of the companies manufacturing these products also make cloth sacks.

Stationery.—This branch includes the manufacture of boxed social stationery. The products covered include envelopes, writing paper, announcement cards, and the fancy boxes in which these commodities are sold to the consumer.

Tags and labels.—This group includes plain and printed tags and labels. Both of these products are frequently manufactured in the same establishments.

Tissue products.—This group includes such products as paper towels, toilet paper, facial tissues, and fruit-wrapping tissues. These items are quite commonly produced in so-called self-contained mills which produce their own paper.

Twisted-paper products.—This group includes paper twine and products made of twisted-paper yarns, such as automobile seat-cover fabric, onion bags, etc. It does not include floor coverings, or hats made of woven paper.

Waterproof paper.—Waterproof paper is commonly made by combining two or more layers of paper, using asphalt as the adhesive material. This product is used for packing and insulating purposes where it is necessary to obtain protection against moisture. Waterproof paper is also used in the manufacture of shipping sacks.

Waxed paper.—The plants covered by this classification produce waxed wrapping papers and similar products. The group includes not only establishments manufacturing waxed paper for bulk sale but also the plants in which these products are boxed and otherwise prepared for sale to the consumer.

Paper products not elsewhere classified.—In addition to the more or less distinct classifications mentioned above, the survey included a wide variety of minor products, some of which are made chiefly in plants whose principal products fall in one or more of the above classifications, while others constitute minor separate industry branches. Among the items in this category are molded pulp products, fiber chair seats, fiber hollow ware, vulcanized fiber products, egg-crate fillers, party novelties, cartridge papers, crepe-paper products, and flat mailing tubes.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

The converted paper products industry includes plants in all parts of the United States. It will be observed from table 2 that the sample used in the survey included establishments in 39 States and the District of Columbia. New York was the most important State, with 19.1 percent of all wage earners covered. Massachusetts ranked second, with 8.9 percent, but was only slightly ahead of Pennsylvania and Illinois, each of which had 8.5 percent of the employees scheduled.

[7] See United States Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 633 (Wages and Hours and Working Conditions in the Set-up Paper Box Industry) for a description of manufacturing processes.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Plants and Employees Covered in Survey of Converted Paper Products Industry, by State, January 1940*

State	Number of plants	Number of employees	Percent of employees	State	Number of plants	Number of employees	Percent of employees
United States	807	59,879	100.0	Southern region—Con.			
				Texas	9	361	0.6
Northeastern region	439	29,742	49.7	Virginia	10	1,168	2.0
Connecticut	20	1,497	2.5	West Virginia	5	384	.6
Maine	4	455	.8	Other States [2]	8	1,364	2.2
Maryland	14	821	1.4				
Massachusetts	71	5,328	8.9	Midwestern region	249	21,286	35.5
New Hampshire	4	763	1.3	Illinois	68	5,114	8.5
New Jersey	48	3,523	5.9	Indiana	22	1,148	1.9
New York	183	11,459	19.1	Iowa	8	144	.2
Pennsylvania	78	5,114	8.5	Kansas [3]	4	156	.3
Rhode Island	9	300	.5	Michigan	29	4,173	7.0
Vermont	4	113	.2	Minnesota	13	1,114	1.9
Other States [1]	4	369	.6	Missouri	27	2,196	3.7
				Ohio	54	4,677	7.7
Southern region	71	5,982	10.0	Wisconsin	24	2,564	4.3
Florida	4	139	.2				
Georgia	9	664	1.1	Western region	48	2,869	4.8
Kentucky	4	155	.3	California	31	1,636	2.8
Louisiana	8	698	1.2	Colorado [4]	4	128	.2
North Carolina	7	409	.7	Oregon	5	240	.4
Tennessee	7	640	1.1	Washington	8	865	1.4

[1] Includes 2 plants in Delaware and 2 in the District of Columbia.
[2] Includes 2 plants in Alabama, 2 in Arkansas, 2 in Oklahoma, and 2 in South Carolina.
[3] Includes 1 plant in Nebraska.
[4] Includes 1 plant in Utah.

A regional distribution of the sample in terms of product classifications is shown in table 3. Nearly every product group was represented in both the Northeast and the Midwest areas, and most of the more important product groups were also found in the South and West. In a majority of cases the number of employees scheduled was larger in the Northeast than in any other region.[8]

[8] It should be noted that the term "production unit" as used in table 3 refers not only to single-product establishments but also to the separate departments in establishments making more than one product. For example, an establishment making both set-up and folding paper boxes would be treated as two separate production units, each classed in its appropriate category.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Production Units and Employees Covered in Survey of Converted Paper Products Industry, by Product and Region, January 1940*

Product	United States		Northeastern region		Midwestern region		Western region		Southern region	
	Number of units	Number of employees	Number of units	Number of employees	Number of units	Number of employees	Number of units	Number of employees	Number of units	Number of employees
Adding-machine rolls and similar products	9	165	5	103	4	62	------	------	------	------
Auto panel board	5	1,069	------	------	5	1,069	------	------	------	------
Blank books, tablets, and index cards	33	2,789	14	1,183	[1] 15	1,428	------	------	4	178
Cans, tubes, cores, and related products	40	2,792	24	1,551	[2] 16	1,241	------	------	------	------
Carbon paper	6	211	[3] 6	211	------	------	------	------	------	------
Commercial envelopes	61	3,556	24	1,679	22	1,299	8	187	7	391
Corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers	114	10,363	40	3,294	47	5,043	10	670	17	1,356
Die-cut specialties	11	515	7	274	[1] 4	241	------	------	------	------
Expanding envelopes and related products	12	429	9	353	3	76	------	------	------	------
Folding paper boxes	125	8,393	53	3,743	44	3,564	12	470	16	616
Glazed and fancy paper	15	691	[1] 15	691	------	------	------	------	------	------
Gummed paper	13	1,199	7	512	[4] 6	687	------	------	------	------
Lace-paper and fluted-paper products	16	836	11	570	[1] 5	266	------	------	------	------
Milk-bottle caps and hoods	8	573	4	411	4	162	------	------	------	------
Miscellaneous rolls and wrapping specialties	9	734	[5] 4	143	5	591	------	------	------	------
Paper, cellophane, and glassine bags	37	3,141	14	1,129	8	480	5	554	10	978
Paper cups	10	1,461	[6] 10	1,461	------	------	------	------	------	------
Photo mounts	6	279	[1] 3	113	3	166	------	------	------	------
Sandpaper	3	756	------	------	[7] 3	756	------	------	------	------
Sensitized paper	6	557	[6] 6	557	------	------	------	------	------	------
Set-up paper boxes	261	9,478	169	6,558	58	1,957	12	306	22	657
Shipping sacks	18	1,386	4	266	[1] 7	596	------	------	7	524
Stationery	13	1,209	10	1,018	[4] 3	191	------	------	------	------
Tags and labels	19	1,211	8	769	[8] 11	442	------	------	------	------
Tissue products	33	2,296	17	899	6	887	5	400	5	110
Twisted-paper products	5	763	[9] 5	763	------	------	------	------	------	------
Waterproof paper	7	329	[6] 7	329	------	------	------	------	------	------
Waxed paper	25	1,644	[4] 11	701	14	943	------	------	------	------
Products not elsewhere classified	18	1,054	13	932	5	122	------	------	------	------

[1] Includes 1 unit in Western region.
[2] Includes 2 units in Southern and 1 unit in Western region.
[3] Includes 2 units in Midwestern region.
[4] Includes 1 unit in Southern region.
[5] Includes 2 units in Western region.
[6] Includes 1 unit in Midwestern region.
[7] Includes 1 unit in Northeastern region.
[8] Includes 1 unit in Southern and 1 unit in Western region.
[9] Includes 1 unit in Southern and 1 unit in Midwestern region.

SIZE OF COMMUNITIES

The large majority of the establishments covered by the survey were located in large metropolitan areas. Among the 807 establishments scheduled, 360 were in places of 1,000,000 population and over, 208 were in communities of 250,000 to 1,000,000, 101 in cities of 50,000 and under 250,000, 89 in communities of 10,000 and under 50,000, and only 49 in places of under 10,000 population.

All branches of the industry were represented in the larger communities. Similarly, there was a fairly wide distribution of products in the communities of under 10,000 population. The most important products in the smaller communities were folding paper boxes, paper, cellophane and glassine bags, set-up paperboxes, corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers, and tissue products.

Among the product groups which were chiefly confined to large cities were glazed and fancy paper, photo mounts, paper cups, die-cut specialities, sensitized paper, stationery, carbon paper, sandpaper, and waterproof paper.

SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENTS

Measured by number of wage earners, including not only workers on paper products but also those in departments making other items, the establishments in the converted paper products industry range from under 20 to over 2,500 in number of employees. Of the 807 establishments covered in the survey, 214 employed under 21 workers, 204 had 21 to 50, 140 had 51 to 100, 140 had 101 to 250, 44 had 251 to 500, 43 had 501 to 1,000, and 22 had 1,000 and over. For the most part, both large and small establishments were represented in each product classification. The principal exceptions were the plants making auto panel board, none of which had under 100 employees, and the sandpaper-manufacturing plants, all of which employed 500 or more wage earners. On the other hand, none of the photo-mount manufacturers employed more than 100 wage earners.

TYPES OF PLANTS

The survey included 702 establishments whose output fell within a single product classification. Of the remaining 105 plants surveyed, 85 made two products, 14 were classified in three product groups, and 6 made products falling in four different categories. The most common combination involved set-up and folding boxes. Thirty-three of the establishments scheduled reported both of these items among their products. The joint production of corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers and folding boxes was also fairly common, being found in 13 establishments.

The survey included independent paper converters, self-contained converters, and consumer plants. The independent converters use only purchased paper and paperboard, whereas the self-contained mills both make the primary paper or board and convert it into the final product. The consumer plants are those establishments that make converted paper products mainly for the use of a parent or controlling company. Typical in the latter group are the box departments of hosiery mills, hat factories, and breakfast-cereal establishments.

Of the 807 establishments surveyed, all but 151 were independent converters. The latter number included 103 self-contained plants and 48 consumer plants. Among the products made in self-contained plants, the most important were folding boxes, shipping containers, tissues, paper bags, and shipping sacks. The consumer plants included 26 establishments making set-up boxes, 9 producing folding boxes, 5 making cans and tubes, 5 making shipping containers, and 3 in which other products were manufactured.

LABOR ORGANIZATION

Only 176 of the plants surveyed were reported as having agreements with national labor unions. Labor organization was most extensive in New York State, where 52 of the plants scheduled had agreements. The States of California and Pennsylvania ranked next, each having 18 union plants. Some union organization was found in nearly all of the States in which a substantial number of plants were covered.

Union organization was likewise widespread in terms of product groups, being found in nearly all of the branches. Among the most important branches, with respect to unionism, were set-up boxes, folding boxes, shipping containers, commercial envelopes, waxed paper, and paper bags.

Average Hourly Earnings

In view of the different characteristics exhibited by the various product groups surveyed, it is apparent that a single average or even an inclusive wage distribution is of little value in presenting a picture of the wage structure in the converted paper products industry. Whereas the general average for the industry was 54.6 cents, table 4 shows that average hourly earnings of the wage earners surveyed varied from 79.8 cents in the automobile panel-board plants to 45.7 cents in plants making twisted-paper articles. It may be surmised that the earnings of workers on automobile panel board are influenced

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Employees in Converted Paper Products Industry, by Product and Sex, January 1940*

Product	Number of employees			Average hourly earnings		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All products	59,879	37,821	22,058	$0.546	$0.615	$0.416
Adding-machine rolls and similar products	165	145	20	.514	.531	.357
Auto panel board	1,069	823	246	.798	.828	.696
Blank books, tablets, and index cards	2,789	1,583	1,206	.531	.615	.412
Cans, tubes, cores, and related products	2,792	1,847	945	.481	.524	.390
Carbon paper	211	146	65	.579	.658	.393
Commercial envelopes	3,556	1,750	1,806	.550	.660	.434
Corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers	10,363	8,171	2,192	.562	.589	.449
Die-cut specialties	515	360	155	.566	.638	.385
Expanding envelopes and related products	429	187	242	.481	.593	.383
Folding paper boxes	8,393	6,388	2,005	.594	.642	.425
Glazed and fancy paper	691	612	79	.572	.584	.465
Gummed paper	1,199	1,017	182	.596	.624	.446
Lace-paper and fluted-paper products	836	464	372	.476	.570	.352
Milk-bottle caps and hoods	573	468	105	.546	.572	.416
Miscellaneous rolls and wrapping specialties	734	540	194	.574	.643	.370
Paper, cellophane, and glassine bags	3,141	1,696	1,445	.528	.622	.409
Paper cups	1,461	791	670	.565	.661	.439
Photo mounts	279	141	138	.513	.605	.410
Sandpaper	756	705	51	.665	.677	.484
Sensitized paper	557	381	176	.647	.711	.507
Set-up paper boxes	9,478	3,331	6,147	.464	.579	.395
Shipping sacks	1,386	680	706	.513	.593	.418
Stationery	1,209	496	713	.482	.571	.414
Tags and labels	1,211	761	450	.587	.684	.408
Tissue products	2,296	1,343	953	.519	.578	.427
Twisted-paper products	763	606	157	.457	.486	.342
Waterproof paper	329	303	26	.594	.609	.394
Waxed paper	1,644	1,483	161	.660	.684	.431
Paper products not elsewhere classified	1,054	603	451	.513	.591	.396

by the relatively high wage levels of the automobile industry, with which auto-panel production is closely connected. On the other hand, the manufacturing processes used for a majority of the twisted-paper products compare closely with the processes found in cotton weaving.

Among the more important branches, specifically those in which 2,500 or more wage earners were scheduled, it will be observed that averages ranged from 59.4 cents for folding boxes to 46.4 cents for set-up boxes. The contrast between earnings in folding and in set-up box manufacture arises primarily from differences in manufacturing processes. The manufacture of set-up boxes as a rule requires more light machine and hand labor than is needed for a comparable output of folding boxes. Furthermore, the average for folding boxes is influenced by the earnings of the relatively high-wage printing pressmen, who make up a substantial proportion of the labor force in these establishments. Relatively few printers are employed in the set-up box factories. Another important difference between the two products is found in the proportion of male to female employees. Of the workers scheduled in folding-box plants, 76.1 percent were men, whereas in the set-up box establishments only 35.1 percent were men. It will be noted, however, that the higher general average for folding-box plants is not entirely accounted for by the variation in proportions of males to females, as both men and women received higher earnings in folding than in set-up box establishments.

The above comparison calls attention to the fact that hourly earnings of males exceeded those of females. Examination of table 4 reveals that this is true of every product group, the difference in favor of the males varying from 11.9 cents in glazed and fancy paper factories to as much as 27.6 cents in the establishments producing tags and labels.

Further evidence as to variations in earnings among production units making different products is furnished by table 5, which shows the distribution of units by average hourly earnings. This table, together with table 6, which shows the distribution of individual employees' earnings, reveals a lack of homogeneity in the data for many of the product groups. An outstanding example is found in the distribution, shown in table 6, for set-up paper boxes. Of the 9,478 workers scheduled in this branch, one-eighth (12.4 percent) were receiving exactly 30 cents an hour. This concentration doubtless reflects the 30-cent minimum wage which was in effect at the time of the survey under provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.[9] Other

[9] Since the completion of the survey, the Wage and Hour Administrator has approved minimum wage rates of 36 to 40 cents an hour for the converted paper products industry. The 40-cent minimum applies to all of the product classes except paper, cellophane and glassine bags, miscellaneous rolls and wrapping specialties, and shipping sacks, which are subject to a 38-cent minimum; and cans, tubes, cores, expanding envelopes, lace- and fluted-paper products, set-up paper boxes, twisted-paper products, and adding-machine rolls, which are subject to the 36-cent minimum. The "products not elsewhere classified" group includes some items in each of these minimum-wage classes.

areas of concentration in the distribution for set-up boxes are found at 35 to 37.5 cents (11.2 percent) and 40 to 42.5 cents (9.4 percent). Other important branches in which the distribution of earnings is extremely irregular include shipping sacks, stationery, and tags and labels.

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of Production Units in Converted Paper Products Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and Product, January 1940*

Average hourly earnings	All products	Adding-machine rolls and similar products	Auto panel board	Blank books, tablets, and index cards	Cans, tubes, cores, and related products	Carbon paper	Commercial envelopes
Under 30.0 cents	2						
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	9				1		
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	33	1			1		
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	39				2		1
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	68	1		5	3		2
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	74			5	3		1
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	78	1		3	4	1	6
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	90			2	5	1	4
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	71			1	5		3
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	83	1		4	5		4
52.5 and under 55.0 cents	62	2		3	1	1	2
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	80	1	1	1	2		12
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	72			1	2	1	11
60.0 and under 62.5 cents	41			2	3	1	5
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	43	1	2		3		5
65.0 and under 67.5 cents	20			4		1	2
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	22						2
70.0 and under 72.5 cents	12	1					
72.5 and under 75.0 cents	10			1			
75.0 and under 80.0 cents	11						
80.0 and under 85.0 cents	8			1			1
85.0 cents and over	10		2				
Total	938	9	5	33	40	6	61

Average hourly earnings	Corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers	Die-cut specialties	Expanding envelopes and related products	Folding paper boxes	Glazed and fancy paper	Gummed paper	Lace-paper and fluted-paper products
Under 30.0 cents				1			
30.0 and under 32.5 cents							
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	2		1	2			1
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	4			2			1
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	5		1	8	1	1	2
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	6			4			1
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	11		2	10	1		2
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	6	4	2	17	1	1	3
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	5	1	1	3		1	3
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	14		1	10	1	1	1
52.5 and under 55.0 cents	8	3	1	10	3	1	1
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	15	1	3	10	2	2	
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	16			6	1	3	
60.0 and under 62.5 cents	5			9	1	1	
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	4			6	1		
65.0 and under 67.5 cents	4			3	1		
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	4	1		8	1	1	
70.0 and under 72.5 cents	2			4		1	
72.5 and under 75.0 cents	1			5			
75.0 and under 80.0 cents		1		3			
80.0 and under 85.0 cents				1	1		
85.0 cents and over	2			3			1
Total	114	11	12	125	15	13	16

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of Production Units in Converted Paper Products Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and Product, January 1940*—Continued

Average hourly earnings	Milk-bottle caps and hoods	Miscellaneous rolls and wrapping specialties	Paper, cellophane, and glassine bags	Paper cups	Photo mounts	Sandpaper	Sensitized paper	Set-up paper boxes
Under 30.0 cents								1
30.0 and under 32.5 cents				2				6
32.5 and under 35.0 cents			2		1			17
35.0 and under 37.5 cents			2					22
37.5 and under 40.0 cents		1	1	1				29
40.0 and under 42.5 cents			4					38
42.5 and under 45.0 cents								27
45.0 and under 47.5 cents		1	4		2			24
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	2	1	2					27
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	3		2		1		1	21
52.5 and under 55.0 cents			4	2			1	11
55.0 and under 57.5 cents			1	3				16
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	1	2	7					10
60.0 and under 62.5 cents		3	3	1	1	1		3
62.5 and under 65.0 cents			3	1	1	1	2	6
65.0 and under 67.5 cents			1				1	
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	1							
70.0 and under 72.5 cents						1		
72.5 and under 75.0 cents								
75.0 and under 80.0 cents		1					1	1
80.0 and under 85.0 cents	1		1					1
85.0 cents and over								1
Total	8	9	37	10	6	3	6	261

Average hourly earnings	Shipping sacks	Stationery	Tags and labels	Tissue products	Twisted-paper products	Waterproof paper	Waxed paper	Products not elsewhere classified
Under 30.0 cents								
30.0 and under 32.5 cents								
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	2				1		1	1
35.0 and under 37.5 cents		2	1	2				
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	1			4			2	
40.0 and under 42.5 cents		1		6	2	1		2
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	3	2		3				2
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	1	4	1	3	1	1	2	
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	5	1	3	2	1	1		3
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	1	1	3	2		1	1	4
52.5 and under 55.0 cents		1	2	1		1	2	1
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	3	1	2	2				2
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	1		2	5		1	1	1
60.0 and under 62.5 cents			1				1	
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	1		1				4	1
65.0 and under 67.5 cents			1				2	
67.5 and under 70.0 cents			1	2				1
70.0 and under 72.5 cents				1			2	
72.5 and under 75.0 cents			1				2	
75.0 and under 80.0 cents						1	3	
80.0 and under 85.0 cents							1	
85.0 cents and over							1	
Total	18	13	19	33	5	7	25	18

TABLE 6.—*Percentage Distribution of Employees in Converted Paper Products Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and Product, January 1940*

Average hourly earnings	All products	Adding-machine rolls and similar products	Auto panel board	Blank books, tablets, and index cards	Cans, tubes, cores, and related products	Carbon paper	Commercial envelopes
Under 30.0 cents	0.4			1.3	0.1		(1)
Exactly 30.0 cents	5.7	18.9		5.8	7.4	1.9	3.5
30.1 and under 32.5 cents	1.6			2.0	2.4	2.4	.8
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	3.3	6.1		5.4	4.5	2.8	1.1
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	7.2	9.1		7.1	13.4	6.2	7.0
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	4.3	2.4		7.3	9.9	6.2	2.8
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	8.7	4.8		8.1	11.8	7.1	13.7
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	12.8	4.2	0.2	15.1	12.9	11.8	22.0
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	12.1	5.5	5.1	10.4	8.6	11.8	12.0
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	9.3	14.5	5.8	7.0	6.1	5.7	7.1
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	7.2	4.8	10.2	6.0	6.8	6.2	5.1
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	6.4	9.1	8.9	5.1	4.5	7.6	3.4
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	5.1	6.7	6.9	4.5	4.2	9.6	3.8
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	3.9	6.1	7.1	3.2	2.1	7.1	3.1
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	2.8	1.2	9.9	1.9	1.5	2.8	3.1
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	2.3	1.8	14.4	1.9	1.2	3.3	2.3
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	2.0	1.2	11.1	2.1	1.0	2.4	2.6
92.5 and under 100.0 cents	1.5	.6	8.3	1.4	.5	.9	1.6
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	1.5	3.0	3.4	2.2	.7	1.4	2.4
110.0 and under 120.0 cents	.9		3.2	.9	.2	1.4	1.3
120.0 and under 130.0 cents	.5		4.0	.7	.1	.5	.5
130.0 cents and over	.5		1.5	.6	.1	.9	.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	59,879	165	1,069	2,789	2,792	211	3,556

Average hourly earnings	Corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers	Die-cut specialties	Expanding envelopes and related products	Folding paper boxes	Glazed and fancy paper	Gummed paper	Lace-paper and fluted-paper products
Under 30.0 cents	(1)			0.5			
Exactly 30.0 cents	3.0	5.2	17.4	4.7	1.9	1.4	17.9
30.1 and under 32.5 cents	.8		2.1	.7	.4	.5	4.1
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	.8	1.6	4.2	1.8	.7	.9	2.9
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	4.4	8.2	11.0	5.3	1.7	1.4	18.2
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	3.3	4.1	9.6	2.4	1.7	3.0	5.5
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	8.0	17.4	7.2	8.5	7.2	3.5	9.9
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	12.3	5.6	14.2	9.6	12.2	16.1	6.1
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	14.2	7.8	8.4	11.6	16.6	10.7	7.2
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	11.8	8.0	4.9	10.3	13.8	11.7	6.3
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	10.4	6.2	4.4	9.5	10.3	11.1	4.1
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	9.4	5.2	2.3	8.5	10.7	12.8	2.8
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	7.0	10.8	3.3	4.8	7.4	8.7	2.6
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	4.5	4.9	2.1	5.0	6.2	5.7	3.7
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	3.1	4.3	2.3	3.0	3.3	4.1	1.8
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	2.3	2.1	.9	2.4	1.7	2.5	2.4
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	1.8	3.1	.5	2.5	.9	2.3	1.1
92.5 and under 100.0 cents	1.3	1.0	1.2	2.5	1.3	1.3	.2
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	.9	1.9	1.6	2.5	.7	1.0	1.0
110.0 and under 120.0 cents	.4	1.2	.7	1.8	1.0	.8	1.3
120.0 and under 130.0 cents	.2	.6	1.2	.8	.3	.3	.2
130.0 cents and over	.1	8	.5	1.3		.2	.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	10,363	515	429	8,393	691	1,199	836

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 6.—*Percentage Distribution of Employees in Converted Paper Products Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and Product, January 1940*—Continued

Average hourly earnings	Milk-bottle caps and hoods	Miscellaneous rolls and wrapping specialties	Paper, cellophane, and glassine bags	Paper cups	Photo mounts	Sandpaper	Sensitized paper	Set-up paper boxes
Under 30.0 cents		0.1	(1)		0.4			1.6
Exactly 30.0 cents	2.6	3.1	5.2	1.6	2.9		0.2	12.4
30.1 and under 32.5 cents	.2	3.0	2.5	1.2	2.9			3.4
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	.3	1.5	4.4	4.2	1.1			7.2
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	5.8	11.4	8.8	4.2	7.2			11.2
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	2.1	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.7			7.7
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	5.1	5.3	11.5	8.1	18.5		6.8	9.4
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	24.1	6.3	9.4	13.6	12.8	7.4	9.5	13.6
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	14.5	11.2	19.3	17.5	14.6	11.9	17.3	9.7
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	7.5	13.6	6.3	11.2	9.0	19.2	13.1	6.3
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	10.1	10.4	3.9	9.1	5.7	2.1	9.5	3.6
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	9.4	4.5	7.2	5.0	3.9	5.2	9.3	2.5
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	3.0	5.3	4.3	4.1	4.3	18.4	5.2	2.5
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	7.5	6.1	2.9	2.7	2.5	14.8	4.5	2.6
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	2.6	4.1	2.1	2.1	3.6	10.8	3.4	1.4
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	4.8	6.3	1.4
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	1.6	1.2	1.9	4.1	1.8	1.2	4.5	1.2
92.5 and under 100.0 cents	.3	1.4	1.6	1.9		.8	3.9	.9
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	.3	2.9	1.2	2.3	1.1	.7	3.1	.6
110.0 and under 120.0 cents	.2	1.6	.7	.9		2.2	1.4	.4
120.0 and under 130.0 cents	.7	.5	.4	.2	.4	.5	1.6	.2
130.0 cents and over	.2	.8	.5	.3	.4		.4	.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	573	734	3,141	1,461	279	756	557	9,478

Average hourly earnings	Shipping sacks	Stationery	Tags and labels	Tissue products	Twisted-paper products	Waterproof paper	Waxed paper	Products not elsewhere classified
Under 30.0 cents	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.1		0.4	0.3
Exactly 30.0 cents	5.5	4.6	4.8	3.6	7.5	0.6	1.0	10.7
30.1 and under 32.5 cents	.1	1.8	1.0	1.5	2.4	1.8	.4	3.5
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	3.6	5.1	3.2	5.0	13.2	.6	.5	3.8
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	11.8	11.6	8.8	6.0	15.3	2.4	1.3	7.1
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	.9	5.7	6.8	3.5	2.4	.6	1.0	2.0
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	7.2	16.1	9.2	6.6	6.6	9.7	4.4	8.8
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	30.4	15.6	8.5	13.1	15.2	16.2	7.8	11.7
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	9.7	13.2	7.9	18.0	10.2	12.2	10.8	10.3
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	8.7	7.9	6.6	12.3	7.5	19.6	14.8	15.2
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	6.1	3.1	7.4	6.3	6.9	5.8	10.0	7.4
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	4.7	4.3	4.1	10.3	5.0	5.2	8.3	4.3
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	3.5	2.7	3.6	6.9	3.4	3.6	9.1	3.3
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	2.5	2.0	4.8	2.2	1.6	3.0	6.4	3.4
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	.8	3.0	5.7	1.9	1.0	1.8	5.0	2.9
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	1.2	.7	3.4	1.3	.3	8.8	2.9	1.6
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	1.2	.8	4.4	.5	.4	.9	3.1	1.3
92.5 and under 100.0 cents	.2	.6	3.6	.4	.4	3.3	1.3	.9
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	.9	.5	2.8	.1	.5	2.1	6.2	.5
110.0 and upder 120.0 cents	.6	.4	1.5	(1)		1.2	2.9	.6
120.0 and under 130.0 cents	.1		.8		.1	.3	1.6	
130.0 cents and over	.2	.1	1.0	.1		.3	.8	.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	1,386	1,209	1,211	2,296	763	329	1,644	1,054

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

FACTORS INFLUENCING WAGE LEVELS

The dispersion of hourly earnings reflected in tables 5 and 6 undoubtedly arises in part from variations in the characteristics of the plants and the workers included in the survey, such as differences in the sex and skill of employees, the regional distribution of plants, the

extent of unionization, the size of communities, the size of plants, and the types of plants. Differences between earnings of males and females have already been pointed out (table 4) and the evidence as to variations in degree of skill required of employees, although not completely analysed at this time, indicate that this is also an important factor.[10]

Many of the product groups include too few plants or employees to warrant detailed analysis in terms of other factors that may influence wages. For purposes of regional comparisons, sufficient information is available to permit the analysis of only 7 of the major industry branches. The regional averages for these groups are shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Average Hourly Earnings in Selected Product Groups in Converted Paper Products Industry, by Region, January 1940*

Product	United States	North-eastern region	Mid-western region	Western region	Southern region
Commercial envelopes	$0.550	$0.551	$0.554	$0.641	$0.488
Corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers	.562	.559	.574	.674	.470
Folding paper boxes	.594	.572	.630	.705	.428
Paper, cellophane, and glassine bags	.528	.570	.475	.601	.463
Set-up paper boxes	.464	.477	.438	.540	.372
Shipping sacks	.513	.486	[1] .566	----------	.461
Tissue products	.519	.434	.571	.615	.474

[1] Includes 1 plant in the Western region.

It will be observed that in each of these groups wage levels were highest in the West.[11] Furthermore, in every case but one, the lowest averages were found in the South. This exception is the tissue-products group, in which the average in the South, although substantially below wage levels in the Midwest and West, was 4 cents above the Northeast average. In all but two branches, namely paper, cellophane, and glassine bags, and set-up paper boxes, hourly wage levels were higher in the Midwest than in the Northeast.

To a considerable degree the regional differences in average hourly earnings reflect the influence of other factors. One of these is the extent of collective bargaining. Union organization was sufficiently extensive in three of the major industry branches to afford some indication of the effects of labor agreements on wage levels. A distribution of the plants surveyed in these branches, classified by plant average hourly earnings and unionization, is shown in table 8. From this tabulation it is clearly evident that the wage level is generally higher in union than in nonunion plants. The West, which showed the highest wage levels in these products, also had a substantially higher proportion of union establishments among those surveyed.

[10] A subsequent report will contain detailed data on earnings by skill and sex groups.

[11] This is true of shipping sacks, although an average for the Western area cannot be shown without divulging confidential information.

TABLE 8.—*Distribution of Plants in Converted Paper Products Industry by Average Hourly Earnings and Unionization, for Selected Product Groups, January 1940*

Plant average hourly earnings	Corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers		Folding paper boxes		Set-up paper boxes	
	Union	Nonunion	Union	Nonunion	Union	Nonunion
Under 35.0 cents		2		3		24
35.0 and under 40.0 cents		9		10	2	49
40.0 and under 45.0 cents		17		14	4	61
45.0 and under 50.0 cents	2	9	1	19	14	37
50.0 and under 55.0 cents	5	17	2	18	12	20
55.0 and under 60.0 cents	9	22	4	12	17	9
60.0 and under 65.0 cents	6	3	8	7	8	1
65.0 and under 70.0 cents	4	4	5	6		
70.0 cents and over	4	1	12	4	3	
Total	30	84	32	93	60	201

For most of the products covered, the data available are insufficient to permit detailed analyses with respect to size of community. There is slight evidence of any consistent relationship between this factor and average hourly earnings. Only 3 branches, namely corrugated and solid fiber containers, folding boxes and set-up boxes, were represented in the survey by a sufficient number of plants in both large and small cities to warrant comparisons. In the corrugated and solid fiber shipping-container group, of 27 plants in places of under 50,000, about half had averages of 55 cents an hour or over. Likewise, 28 of the 58 plants in the largest metropolitan areas had averages at that level or higher. In the folding-box branch, also, the plant averages give little evidence of variation by size of community. Among the set-up box plants, wages showed a tendency to reach higher levels in the larger communities, but this may be a reflection of other factors. For example, 32 of the 146 plants in cities of 500,000 and over averaged 55 cents or more, whereas only 6 of the 115 establishments in smaller places had averages at that figure or above, but a large proportion (26 out of 32) of the high-wage plants in the larger cities were union plants.

The data for 3 major product groups indicate that in general wage levels tend to be higher in the larger establishments, although the distribution of plant averages within each plant-size class covers a wide range. In corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers, 21 of the 39 plants with under 51 employees had averages under 50 cents an hour, whereas only 18 of the 75 plants employing over 50 workers showed averages below that level. Applying the same gage to the folding paper box group, it is found that 25 of the 53 smaller plants, as against only 22 of the 72 larger plants, were in the low-average classes. In the set-up paper box branch, there is little evidence of higher averages with increasing plant size among establishments having under 250 employees. A tendency toward higher plant averages was found

among the establishments having over 250 employees, but this was a relatively small group, comprising less than 10 percent of the plants covered in this branch.

There is scanty evidence of any relationship between hourly earnings and type of plant. As previously pointed out, a large majority of the plants in most branches of the industry are independent, that is, neither do they carry on primary paper-making operations nor is their product consumed by an owner company. In only 3 branches, namely, tissue products, folding paper boxes, and corrugated and solid fiber shipping containers, were there enough self-contained plants to warrant comparisons. Among the tissue-products establishments, there was little difference between wage levels in independent and self-contained plants. Of the 114 corrugated and solid fiber shipping container producers, 90 were independent, 19 were self-contained, and 5 were consumer plants. Of the self-contained plants, 15 had averages of 55 cents or more. In contrast, only 34 of the 90 independent establishments averaged more than that amount. Likewise, in the folding paper box branch, 17 of the 23 self-contained plants, as against 33 of the 93 independents, had averages of 55 cents or more. In connection with these figures, it should be pointed out that the self-contained plants were considerably larger, on the average, than the independent plants. Hence higher wage levels in the self-contained establishments may reflect the influence of size.

Considerable numbers of consumer plants were found only in the folding and set-up box branches. All of the 9 consumer plants in the folding-box group had averages considerably above the general wage level for that branch. The plant averages among the 26 consumer establishments in the set-up box branch were so widely dispersed as to reveal little evidence of a central tendency. This is not surprising, as wage levels in the consumer plants are influenced by wage policies in the parent companies, which operate in a variety of unrelated industries.

Comparisons with Results of Previous Surveys

The last previous survey by the Bureau of the converted paper produots industry was conducted in 1935, and covered a pay-roll period in August of that year. That study included only two of the branches covered by the present report, namely, folding boxes and set-up boxes. As the two surveys were conducted along similar lines, a comparison of the results will throw some light on changes that may have occurred during the 4½-year period in the wage structures of these important product groups.

The earlier survey revealed that hourly earnings in the folding-box branch averaged 53.5 cents in August 1935. This average is 5.9 cents

under that shown for January 1940. Male employees benefited considerably more than females from the increase, the average for males showing a gain of 6.5 cents, as against only 3.6 cents for females. Most of the shift occurred in northern plants, where average hourly earnings advanced 6.2 cents, as against a gain of only 1.3 cents in the South.[12] It is of interest to note that fewer workers in 1935 than in 1940 (5.2 percent as against 7.7 percent) were averaging under 35 cents. On the other hand, 22.1 percent in 1935, as compared with 15.4 percent in 1940, were receiving under 40 cents an hour.

Hourly earnings in the set-up box branch averaged 43.6 cents in August 1935. The average for January 1940 was 46.4 cents, representing an increase of 2.8 cents. Male employees received twice as great an increase as females (3.4 cents as compared with 1.7 cents). Virtually all of the upward shift occurred in the Northern region, which showed a gain of 2.9 cents in average hourly earnings, as against only one-half cent in the South. About 7 percent of the set-up box workers were receiving under 30 cents an hour in 1935, whereas in 1940 less than 2 percent of the workers had hourly earnings below that amount. The proportions of employees averaging below 35 cents were 30.5 percent in 1935 as against 24.6 percent in 1940. Over half (51.9 percent) of the workers scheduled in 1935, as compared with 43.5 percent in 1940, were receiving under 40 cents an hour.

In both of the above-mentioned branches of the industry, the proportion of males and the regional distributions of plants were about the same in 1940 as in 1935.

SALARIES OF HOSPITAL NURSES, 1940

GRADUATE nurses on floor duty received an average of $101 monthly in nongovernmental general hospitals in the United States and Canada, in the spring of 1940, according to data obtained in a general survey of salaries in such hospitals made by Modern Hospital Publishing Co. (Chicago). Salaries of head nurses averaged $116 per month, and of nursing supervisors, $128. These figures represent the amount of the cash salary plus an estimated fair value for maintenance.

In the case of floor-duty graduate nurses, relatively little difference in salaries was found between small hospitals and large ones, except in those of 500 beds and over. The general average ranged from $95 per month in hospitals having fewer than 25 beds to $109 in those of from 300 to 499 beds; in hospitals of 500 beds and over, the average was $117. Head nurses and nursing supervisors received considerably higher salaries in the larger hospitals, averaging, respectively,

[12] The Northern region as defined in the 1935 survey included the Northeastern, Midwestern, and Western regions as established for the 1940 survey.

$129 and $157 in those of 300 to 499 beds, and $138 and $173 in those of 500 beds and over, as compared with $108 and $113 in hospitals of fewer than 25 beds. In hospitals having from 100 to 199 beds, the averages were $118 and $134, respectively.

In the small hospitals, the difference between the salary of a head nurse and that of a supervisor was only $5, but the difference increased to $35 in the largest hospitals. The report calls attention to the probability that in the smaller hospitals there is relatively less difference in the responsibility of the two positions. Head nurses in large hospitals, it is stated, may not have any greater responsibilities than in smaller institutions, but the salary is usually higher. In the case of nursing supervisors, Modern Hospital reports that the range in salaries may be due in part to differences in interpretation of the term "nursing supervisor" by the reporting hospitals.

For both floor-duty graduate nurses and head nurses, salaries were in general highest in the Mountain and Pacific States; for nursing supervisors they were highest in the East (New England and Middle Atlantic States) in 4 of the 7 hospital groups. Salaries were lowest in Canada for all occupation groups. The greatest range in salaries of head nurses was reported from the Southern States, where one hospital stated it paid less than $50 to a head nurse, while another reported a salary of over $200. One hospital in the East and one in the Mountain-Pacific region reported salaries of over $200 per month.

The data in the accompanying table, taken from the issues of Modern Hospital for November and December 1940, show the salaries of floor-duty graduate nurses, head nurses, and nursing supervisors, in 1940.

Average Monthly Salaries of Nurses in Nongovernmental General Hospitals of United States and Canada, 1940

Occupation and region	Size of hospital (number of beds)						
	Under 25	25–49	50–99	100–199	200–299	300–499	500 and over
Floor-duty graduate nurses	$95	$100	$99	$104	$106	$109	$117
East	110	106	104	109	110	107	124
South	95	96	91	99	98	107	138
Mountain-Pacific	103	113	112	111	122	117	----
Middle West	91	98	97	103	102	106	112
Canada	74	85	85	84	88	[1] 106	[2] 98
Head nurses	108	111	112	118	123	129	138
East	111	121	118	123	126	130	141
South	101	104	107	113	117	131	156
Mountain-Pacific	115	127	120	126	127	128	----
Middle West	105	104	110	116	119	122	133
Canada	100	87	98	106	[1] 116	[1] 115	[2] 112
Nursing supervisors	113	116	123	134	138	157	173
East	125	124	127	141	146	157	190
South	112	116	121	129	136	153	[2] 162
Mountain-Pacific	114	119	129	143	138	158	----
Middle West	111	114	122	131	136	166	166
Canada	[1] 82	93	100	113	[1] 131	[2] 120	[2] 160

[1] Only 2 reports received.
[2] Only 1 report received.

PAY-ROLL INCREASES IN CUBA, 1940 [1]

ACCORDING to statistics released by the Cuban Health and Maternity Commission, maternity-fund tax payments in 1940 in the six Cuban Provinces indicate that pay rolls of commercial and industrial enterprises in Cuba during that year totaled 139,035,008 pesos.[2] This represents an increase of 3,082,602 pesos compared with 1939 and of 11,357,818 pesos compared with 1938.

The collections of the Maternity Fund tax during 1940 amounted to 1,042,763 pesos.

The heavier tax receipts in 1940 may be due to higher wages in some industries, to an extension of industrial activity, or to an improvement in tax-collection methods. To what extent each of these factors individually may have contributed to the improved showing it is impracticable to estimate.

The maternity fund, which was established by decree-law No. 152 of April 18, 1934, as modified by the law of September 7, 1938, is made up of contributions by employers, amounting to one-half of 1 percent of their total pay rolls, and by laborers and employees, amounting to one-fourth of 1 percent of their salaries or wages. Strictly agricultural pursuits are exempted from the tax. As Cuba is predominantly an agricultural country, wages paid for agricultural labor are probably greater than the pay rolls of commercial and industrial establishments.

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[1] Data are from report of Albert F. Nufer, United States commercial attaché at Habana.

[2] Average exchange rate of Cuban peso in 1940=90 cents.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, MARCH 1941 [1]

MARCH building permit valuations for all classes of construction combined showed a seasonal increase of 18.1 percent over February. Indicated expenditures for new residential construction were 37.2 percent higher than in the preceding month. New nonresidential construction, as measured by the value of permits issued, declined 8.2 percent from the February level. Additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures showed a gain of 24.4 percent.

Over the year period increased permit valuations were reported for all classes of construction. New residential construction was 19.0 percent higher than in March 1940 and indicated expenditures for new nonresidential construction increased 49.4 percent. Permit valuations of additions, alterations, and repairs exceeded March 1940 permit valuations by 11.7 percent. The increase for all classes of construction combined amounted to 25.5 percent.

Comparison of March 1941 with February 1941 and March 1940

A summary of building construction in 2,154 identical cities in March 1941, with percentage changes from February 1941 and March 1940 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,154 Identical Cities, March 1941*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	March 1941	Percentage change from—		March 1941	Percentage change from—	
		February 1941	March 1940		February 1941	March 1940
All construction	66,120	+47.8	+6.3	$211,730,739	+18.1	+25.5
New residential	24,990	+58.7	+13.4	119,310,373	+37.2	+19.0
New nonresidential	10,095	+55.8	+7.3	63,089,643	−8.2	+49.4
Additions, alterations, and repairs	31,035	+37.8	+1.0	29,330,723	+24.4	+11.7

A summary of permit valuations and the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings in 2,154 identical cities, having a

[1] More detailed information by geographic division and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, March 1941," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

population of 500 and over, is shown in table 2 for March 1941 with percentage changes from February 1941 and March 1940.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,154 Identical Cities, by Type of Dwelling, March 1941*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation			Number of dwelling units		
	March 1941	Percentage change from—		March 1941	Percentage change from—	
		February 1941	March 1940		February 1941	March 1940
All types	$117,580,764	+36.2	+18.2	32,051	+32.5	+14.8
1-family	91,042,117	+62.7	+17.3	23,043	+64.5	+13.3
2-family [1]	5,980,552	+82.4	+6.7	2,213	+66.3	+3.7
Multifamily [2]	20,558,095	−24.1	+26.5	6,795	−23.3	+24.6

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 3 Months, 1940 and 1941

Cumulative totals for the first 3 months of 1941 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 500 and over.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction, by Class of Construction Reporting Cities of 500 Population and Over, First 3 Months, 1940 and 1941*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 3 months of—		Percentage change
	1941	1940	
All construction	$563,691,110	$431,994,596	+30.5
New residential	298,731,915	242,234,582	+23.3
New nonresidential	188,356,736	118,420,924	+59.1
Additions, alterations, and repairs	76,602,459	71,339,090	+7.4

TABLE 4.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units, by Type of Dwelling, First 3 Months of 1940 and 1941* [1]

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation, first 3 months of—		Percentage change	Number of dwelling units, first 3 months of—		Percentage change
	1941	1940		1941	1940	
All types	$295,827,209	$240,229,235	+23.1	82,347	68,010	+21.1
1-family	205,292,245	171,238,466	+19.9	51,744	45,288	+14.3
2-family [2]	12,958,299	12,060,475	+7.4	5,060	4,891	+3.5
Multifamily [3]	77,576,665	56,930,294	+36.3	25,553	17,831	+43.3

[1] Based on reports from cities with a population of 500 and over, the cities being identical for any given month of both years.
[2] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[3] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Table 4 presents the permit valuation and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 500 and over, for the first 3 months of 1940 and 1941.

Analysis by Size of City, March 1941

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in March 1941 with percentage changes from February 1941 and March 1940, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Various Classes of Building Construction in 2,154 Identical Cities, by Size of City, March 1941*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, March 1941	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, March 1941	Percentage change from—	
			February 1941	March 1940		February 1941	March 1940
Total, all reporting cities	2,154	$211,730,739	+18.1	+25.0	$119,310,373	+37.2	+19.0
500,000 and over	14	58,636,040	+27.8	−.5	34,364,942	+26.5	+2.0
100,000 and under 500,000	78	50,191,883	−7.4	+26.7	25,884,614	+7.0	+8.0
50,000 and under 100,000	104	26,397,008	+14.9	+57.6	13,990,003	+90.9	+45.2
25,000 and under 50,000	189	30,432,286	+18.7	+66.6	15,784,850	+58.6	+49.5
10,000 and under 25,000	465	26,766,587	+56.9	+41.0	16,699,378	+61.7	+52.0
5,000 and under 10,000	427	10,384,167	+30.0	+8.8	7,644,580	+61.4	+6.1
2,500 and under 5,000	439	6,485,228	+53.3	+33.0	3,639,063	+44.6	+14.9
1,000 and under 2,500 [1]	438	2,437,540	+82.3	+38.6	1,302,943	+65.9	+26.0

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Population (census of 1940)
	Permit valuation, March 1941	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, March 1941	Percentage change from—		
		February 1941	March 1940		February 1941	March 1940	
Total, all reporting cities	$63,089,643	−8.2	+49.4	$29,330,723	+24.4	+11.7	64,263,546
500,000 and over	14,088,308	+42.4	−8.3	10,182,790	+15.5	+3.0	22,367,825
100,000 and under 500,000	17,152,207	−29.6	+71.3	7,155,062	+26.5	+26.8	15,620,164
50,000 and under 100,000	8,964,770	−27.8	+148.3	3,442,235	+6.7	−1.8	7,161,014
25,000 and under 50,000	11,336,076	−16.3	+128.5	3,311,360	+55.1	+20.4	6,644,136
10,000 and under 25,000	6,621,068	+49.5	+29.5	3,446,141	+49.4	+19.7	7,145,278
5,000 and under 10,000	1,618,350	−37.1	+14.4	1,121,237	+65.2	+20.8	3,017,593
2,500 and under 5,000	2,394,002	+98.2	+98.5	452,163	−10.7	−10.2	1,583,600
1,000 and under 2,500 [1]	914,862	+202.1	+65.8	219,735	−11.9	+27.1	723,936

[1] Includes 9 cities having a population of 500 and under 1,000.

The permit valuation and number of new dwelling units provided, by type of dwelling and size of city, in the 2,154 identical cities reporting for February and March 1941, are given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,154 Identical Cities, by Size of City and Type of Dwelling, March 1941*

Size of city	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
				All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
	March 1941	February 1941	Percentage change	Mar. 1941	Feb. 1941	Mar. 1941	Feb. 1941	Mar. 1941	Feb. 1941	Mar. 1941	Feb. 1941
Total, all reporting cities	$117,580,764	$86,315,455	+36.2	32,051	24,198	23,043	14,006	2,213	1,331	6,795	8,861
500,000 and over	34,244,942	27,119,060	+26.3	8,842	7,137	5,023	3,309	683	478	3,136	3,350
100,000 and under 500,000	25,061,980	24,155,539	+3.8	7,039	7,269	4,828	3,451	498	355	1,713	3,463
50,000 and under 100,000	13,870,803	7,272,340	+90.7	4,043	2,229	2,510	1,578	298	232	1,235	419
25,000 and under 50,000	15,219,850	9,462,599	+60.8	4,440	2,640	3,671	1,568	432	92	337	980
10,000 and under 25,000	16,605,603	10,296,835	+61.3	4,380	2,786	3,982	2,121	142	109	256	556
5,000 and under 10,000	7,641,580	4,711,335	+62.2	2,020	1,250	1,858	1,158	87	34	75	58
2,500 and under 5,000	3,633,063	2,512,476	+44.6	951	686	861	639	55	23	35	24
1,000 and under 2,500	1,302,943	785,271	+65.9	336	201	310	182	18	8	8	11

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,154 identical cities having a population of 500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. In New York and North Carolina the information from the smaller cities is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials and the information from the larger cities is collected and forwarded to the Bureau by the State departments of labor. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the report. For March 1941 the value of these buildings amounted to $32,310,000, for February 1941 to $55,036,000, and for March 1940 to $18,436,000.

Construction From Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during March 1941, February 1941, and March 1940 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds, February and March 1941, and March 1940* [1]

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	March 1941	February 1941 [2]	March 1940 [2]
Total	$423,562,972	$195,039,199	$119,730,864
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	2,011	3,900	948,723
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	6,728	829	391,229
E. R. A. A.	2,327,450	505	329,240
P. W. A. A., 1938	142,980	39,290	11,398,467
Federal agency projects under the WPA	22,337	27,515	3,751,332
Regular Federal appropriations	412,418,748	181,830,329	91,029,092
United States Housing Authority	8,642,718	13,136,831	11,882,781

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision. [2] Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for March 1941, February 1941, and March 1940 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	*Highway construction*
March 1941	$1,511,742	$7,041,671
February 1941	954,165	2,984,882
March 1940	1,110,883	6,642,258

OPERATIONS OF URBAN HOME BUILDERS [1]

ABOUT 75,000 builders divided the business of constructing the 167,000 urban one-family houses that were erected in 1938. The typically small scale of operations, which is American practice in the case of home building, may be chiefly responsible for the fact that the cost of a house is high in comparison with the cost of equally complicated fabrications of mass-production industries in this country. Data on the number of houses per builder in sample cities were given in an article entitled "Builders of 1-Family Houses in 72 Cities," in the September 1940 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. The data given in the present article are estimates covering all cities, based on the 72-city sample study conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as part of a Nation-wide Federal Works Project and on other material regularly compiled by the Bureau.

This study indicated that two-thirds of the builders erected only one house each. These included a large number of owner builders, as well as individual craftsmen and special trades contractors whose major income was derived from subcontract work on construction

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment.

credited to other enterprises. Only the person or firm having the general contract, or the owner in the case of speculative-built and of owner-built houses, was classified as a "builder."

The average number of city houses constructed per builder was 2.2 in 1938. For the 24,000 who built 2 or more houses each, the average was 4.8. The latter figure may more nearly represent the size of builders who depended on such construction for their entire livelihood. In any case, it appears that urban home builders in 1938 either (1) had sources of income other than home building, (2) made a large profit on each house, or (3) received very little income. The fact that so many owners chose to act as their own general contractors suggests that profits per house may have been high, although there are other reasons contributing to this situation. In a few towns, preferential treatment on building-permit fees is given to construction for the builder's own occupancy. In other cases, social-security tax schedules provided an incentive to eliminate the general contractor, in law, if not in fact.

Operations of Urban Home Builders, 1938, by Size of City [1]

Size of city	Number of builders					Number of houses built				
	All builders	Builders of—				All builders	Builders of—			
		1 house	2–4 houses	5–9 houses	10 or more houses		1 house	2–4 houses	5–9 houses	10 or more houses
All cities	74,800	50,900	17,300	4,600	2,000	166,900	50,900	44,700	28,200	43,100
100,000 or more	21,800	13,800	5,200	1,700	1,100	66,100	13,800	13,600	10,700	28,000
25,000 to 100,000	15,600	11,000	3,400	900	300	30,400	11,000	8,700	5,600	5,100
Less than 25,000	37,400	26,100	8,700	2,000	600	70,400	26,100	22,400	11,900	10,000
	Average number of houses per builder					Percent of houses built on contract				
All cities	2.2	1.0	2.6	6.1	21.6	53	55	61	60	36
100,000 or more	3.0	1.0	2.6	6.3	25.5	42	56	60	50	24
25,000 to 100,000	1.9	1.0	2.6	6.2	17.0	61	61	60	64	60
Less than 25,000	1.9	1.0	2.6	6.0	16.7	59	53	63	68	59

[1] Includes only builders of 1-family houses within city limits.

The average number of houses per builder of 2–4 houses was 2.6, only a little above the lower limit of the class interval. This average was the same in all three city-size groups. In the case of builders of 5–9 houses a year, the average still was well toward the lower limit, with practically no difference between cities of different sizes. As would be expected, the average number of houses was much greater for big builders in the big cities than for the largest scale builders in smaller places. A builder of as many as 10 houses per year within city limits was relatively rare. There were only about 2,000 of them in 1938, and 1,100 of these were in cities of 100,000 or more population.

Both the number of builders and the number of houses per builder probably are higher at the present time than in 1938. There were

281,000 urban one-family houses constructed in 1940, and 240,000 in 1939, compared with the 167,000 in 1938. As the volume of building increased, it is reasonable to expect that additional enterprises came into the industry and that existing firms did more business.

Slightly over half the new urban one-family houses were built on contract in 1938. This is higher than quoted opinions of informed individuals sometimes suggest. There are several reasons for the disparity. Possibly the most important is that the big builders in metropolitan communities ordinarily build on speculation, and even informed opinion tends to overweight their operations in appraising the whole. Another reason is inherent in the data, which include as contract-built any house which is contracted for before the builder begins construction. It is common practice for a developer to erect several houses as a speculation and to sell copies of these houses on order. On the other hand, houses built by owner-builders are not classed as contract-built, since the owner does not know how much his structure will cost until it has been completed; in other words, he is speculating. In view of this fact, it is noteworthy that over half the houses built even by one-house builders in 1938 were erected on contract.

Only in the case of builders of 10 or more houses in cities of 100,000 or larger was more than half the home-building activity speculative. Builders of 2–4 and 5–9 houses a year carried on most of their operations under contract, even in the large cities. The big builders in cities under 100,000 population had construction or sales contracts before starting the majority of homes they erected.

All of the figures quoted above are estimates based on houses for which building permits were issued. As a result, they suffer from the same limitation that affects permit data generally; they are confined to building within the incorporated limits of the community. In addition to the 167,000 urban one-family houses, it is estimated that about 94,000 were built outside city limits, but not on farms, in 1938. Many of these rural nonfarm houses were built by city builders. No account is taken of this fact in the classification of urban builders by size. Similarly, there probably were builders whose operations were confined to the areas outside city limits. The data presented herewith do not include them.

Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN MARCH 1941

RETAIL costs of food in large cities advanced one-half of 1 percent between February 18 and March 18. This was the fourth consecutive monthly rise, the total increase between mid-November and mid-March amounting to 2.6 percent. Continued advances for pork, sugar, and coffee were reported between February and March, as well as higher prices for butter, milk, fish, canned vegetables, and some of the fresh fruits and vegetables that have been affected by unfavorable growing conditions in the important producing areas. These increases were partially offset by lower prices for beef, eggs, and such fresh vegetables as spinach and carrots, which are now being shipped in relatively large quantities from the early crop areas. Preliminary reports for April 1 from 18 cities indicate further advances in retail food prices in general.

On March 18, 1941, the Bureau's index of retail prices of 54 foods was 98.4 percent of the 1935–39 average. This is a net rise of 2.9 percent since last March, mainly due to average advances of 13 percent for meats, and 2 percent for dairy products and eggs. Costs of other major food groups, such as cereals and bakery products, fruits and vegetables, fats and oils, beverages, and sugar, showed net declines from last year ranging from 0.3 percent to 3 percent.

Details by Commodity Groups

Retail prices of flour have been advancing moderately but steadily since October 1940, except for a slight decline in February of this year. They rose 1 percent between February and March, to a point higher than at any time since last July, but were still at a level 7 percent lower than last March. Prices of white bread showed no change for the month and were 3.7 percent below a year ago. Whole-wheat and rye bread advanced 1 percent between February and March and vanilla cookies and soda crackers declined by the same amount.

Small advances in the retail prices of pork, chickens, and fish were offset by declines for beef, veal, and lamb between February 18 and March 18, with the result that the total meat bill for wage-earners' families remained unchanged for the month. Compared with a year

ago, however, meat prices as a whole were up about 13 percent. This higher level was accounted for by price advances in several kinds of meat as follows: Pork, 19 percent; beef, 13 percent; veal and roasting chickens, 10 to 11 percent; pink salmon, 6 percent; and lamb and fish, about 2.5 percent. Although pork prices in March 1941 were nearly one-fifth higher than last year they were still below the level for any March in the last 6 years, with the exception of March 1940.

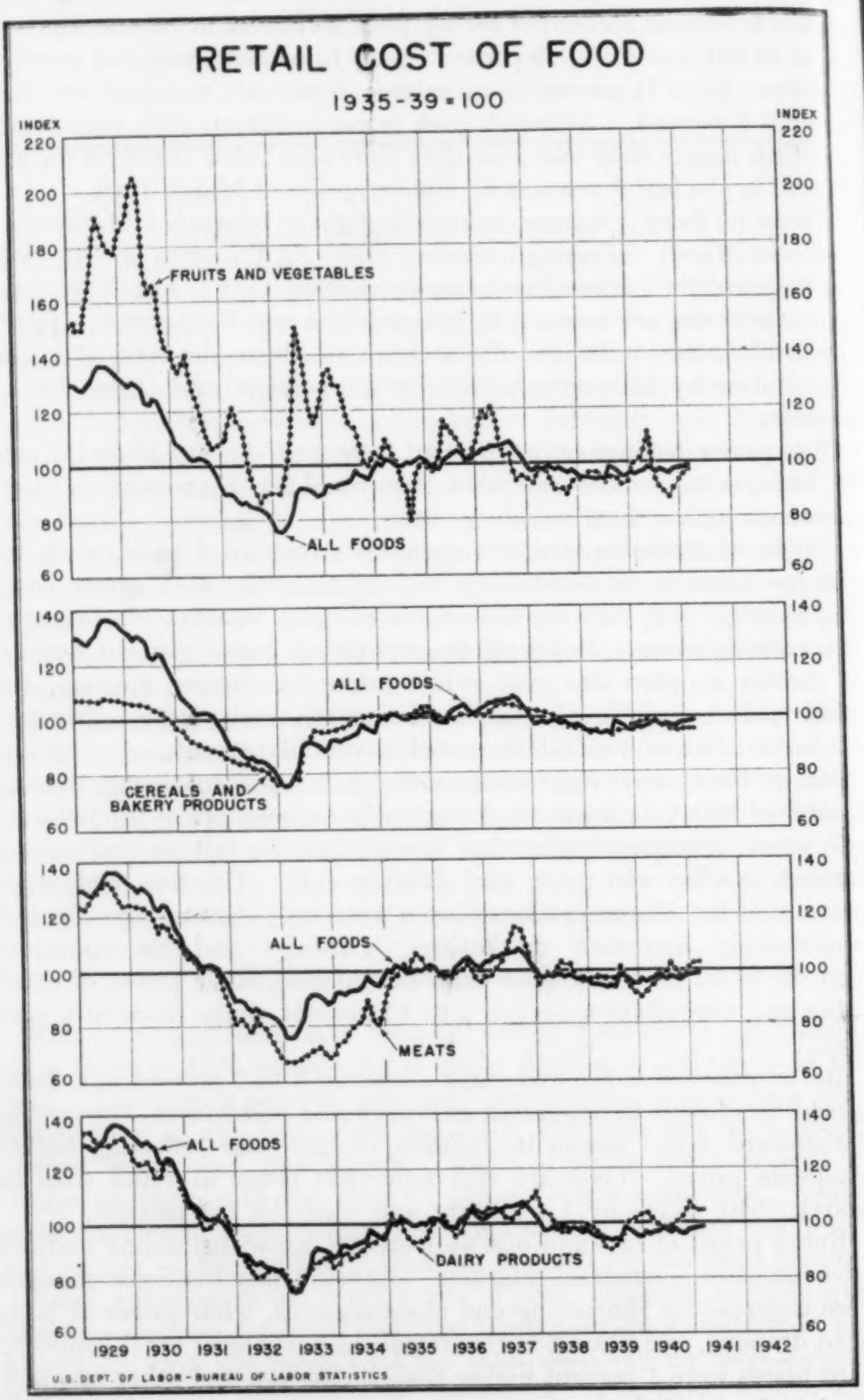
Costs of dairy products increased slightly between mid-February and mid-March, reflecting increased prices for butter in 26 cities and for fresh milk in 2 cities, Baltimore and Kansas City. For the country as a whole the net increase in butter prices was 0.5 percent. Retail prices of butter, milk, and cheese were all above the level of a year ago, butter by 5.3 percent, milk by 0.8 percent, and cheese by 1.5 percent.

Egg prices declined only 2 percent between February 18 and March 18, 1941, a drop considerably less than usual for this season, and were 2 percent higher than in March 1940.

Prices of fresh fruits and vegetables advanced 2 percent on the average between mid-February and mid-March, with green beans and cabbage still showing the effects of rainy weather conditions in the growing areas. Prices of sweetpotatoes rose 6 percent because of shorter supplies this year, while prices for carrots, spinach, and white potatoes declined, supplies being relatively large. Prices of canned fruits and vegetables moved upward 1 percent. As a group, costs of fruits and vegetables averaged 2.3 percent lower than in March of last year because of markedly reduced prices for potatoes and green beans, and somewhat lower prices for lettuce and onions, canned peaches and peas, and dried prunes. Potatoes and green beans sold for 20 percent less than a year ago, showing the effect of considerably increased marketings. Cabbage and sweetpotatoes were 20 to 30 percent higher than last March, while prices of other fruits and vegetables averaged 2 to 10 percent above those of a year ago.

Retail prices of coffee and sugar advanced 2 to 3 percent in a widespread movement between mid-February and mid-March, continuing the upward trend begun in January of this year reflecting higher wholesale prices. They are still somewhat lower at retail than in March 1940, coffee by 1.4 percent and sugar by 0.3 percent.

Retail prices of fats and oils were steady, notwithstanding marked price increases in wholesale markets. At retail only fractional changes were reported for shortening and oleomargarine, while prices of lard, salad dressing, and peanut butter remained unchanged for the month. Lard prices were 1 percent higher than a year ago and other fats and oils 1 to 5 percent lower.


RETAIL COST OF FOOD
1935-39 = 100
INDEX
INDEX
220
200
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES
ALL FOODS
ALL FOODS
CEREALS AND BAKERY PRODUCTS
ALL FOODS
MEATS
ALL FOODS
DAIRY PRODUCTS
1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942
U.S. DEPT. OF LABOR - BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Indexes of retail costs of food for March 1941, February 1941, and March 1940 are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart shows the trend in costs of all foods (1935–39=100) and of each major commodity group for the period January 1929 to March 1941, inclusive.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, March and February 1941 and March 1940*

[1935–39=100]

Commodity group	1941		1940	Commodity group	1941		1940
	Mar. 18[2]	Feb. 18	Mar. 12		Mar. 18[2]	Feb. 18	Mar. 12
All foods	98.4	97.9	95.6	Fruits and vegetables	97.1	95.6	99.4
				Fresh	98.1	96.3	101.0
Cereals and bakery products	95.1	95.0	97.9	Canned	92.5	[3] 91.8	92.8
Meats	102.5	102.5	91.0	Dried	99.3	[3] 99.5	101.1
Dairy products	104.6	104.4	102.3	Beverages	93.5	91.5	93.9
Eggs	83.0	85.0	81.5	Fats and oils	81.3	81.1	83.5
				Sugar	98.1	96.0	98.4

[1] Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Revised.

Prices of 25 of 54 foods included in the index were higher in March 1941 than in February, 14 were lower, and for 15 there was no change. Compared with March of last year, 28 foods were quoted at higher prices in March 1941, 20 at lower prices, and 6 at the same prices. Average prices of each of 63 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for March 1941, February 1941, and March 1940.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, March and February 1941 and March 1940*

Article		1941		1940
		Mar. 18[1]	Feb. 18	Mar. 12
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	41.7	41.3	44.9
Macaroni	pound	13.8	13.8	14.2
Wheat cereal[2]	28-ounce package	23.4	23.5	23.7
Corn flakes	8-ounce package	7.2	7.2	7.0
Corn meal	pound	4.2	4.2	4.2
Rice[2]	do	8.1	8.0	7.9
Rolled oats[2]	do	7.1	7.1	7.1
Bakery products:				
Bread, white	do	7.8	7.8	8.1
Bread, whole wheat	do	8.8	8.7	9.0
Bread, rye	do	9.1	9.0	9.5
Vanilla cookies	do	25.3	25.6	25.5
Soda crackers	do	15.0	15.1	15.0
Meats:				
Beef:				
Round steak	do	38.0	38.4	33.7
Rib roast	do	31.2	31.3	27.8
Chuck roast	do	25.1	25.1	22.0
Veal: Cutlets	do	46.2	46.7	41.9

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Not included in index.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, March and February 1941 and March 1940*—Continued

Article		1941		1940
		Mar. 18[1]	Feb. 18	Mar. 12
Meats—Continued.				
Pork:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Chops	pound	29.6	29.5	24.9
Bacon, sliced	do	32.0	31.9	26.9
Ham, sliced[2]	do	46.5	46.4	43.0
Ham, whole	do	27.6	27.3	24.0
Salt pork	do	17.8	[3]17.9	13.7
Lamb:				
Leg	do	27.7	27.7	27.1
Rib chops	do	35.3	35.4	34.3
Poultry: Roasting chickens	do	32.1	31.9	28.8
Fish:				
Fresh, frozen	do	[4]	[4]	[4]
Salmon, pink	16-ounce can	16.2	16.0	15.3
Salmon, red[2]	do	26.9	26.7	25.4
Dairy products:				
Butter	pound	37.6	37.4	35.7
Cheese	do	26.7	27.0	26.3
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	13.0	13.0	12.9
Milk, fresh (store)	do	11.9	11.9	11.8
Milk, fresh (delivered and store)[2]	do	12.7	12.6	12.6
Milk, evaporated	14½-ounce can	7.1	7.1	7.1
Eggs	dozen	29.4	30.0	28.6
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	5.3	5.2	4.9
Bananas	do	7.0	6.7	6.4
Oranges	dozen	27.5	27.4	26.8
Beans, green	pound	20.2	17.6	25.1
Cabbage	do	5.0	4.5	3.9
Carrots	bunch	5.3	5.4	5.0
Lettuce	head	8.1	8.1	8.4
Onions	pound	3.6	3.6	3.8
Potatoes	15 pounds	29.6	30.0	38.4
Spinach	pound	7.0	7.6	6.5
Sweetpotatoes	do	5.3	5.0	4.3
Canned:				
Peaches	No. 2½ can	16.6	16.5	17.2
Pineapple	do	21.0	21.0	21.0
Beans, green[2]	No. 2 can	10.2	10.1	10.0
Corn	do	10.9	10.7	10.6
Peas	do	13.4	13.2	13.7
Tomatoes	do	8.5	8.4	8.5
Dried:				
Prunes	pound	9.5	9.6	9.8
Navy beans	do	6.5	6.5	6.5
Beverages:				
Coffee	do	21.4	20.8	21.7
Tea	¼ pound	17.7	17.6	17.4
Cocoa[2]	8-ounce can	9.1	9.1	9.1
Fats and oils:				
Lard	pound	9.6	9.6	9.5
Shortening, other than lard:				
In cartons	do	11.5	11.4	12.0
In other containers	do	18.4	18.3	19.3
Salad dressing	pint	20.1	20.1	21.0
Oleomargine	pound	15.6	15.7	16.1
Peanut butter	do	17.7	17.7	17.9
Sugar and sweets:				
Sugar	10 pounds	52.7	51.6	52.9
Corn sirup[2]	24-ounce can	13.6	13.6	13.4
Molasses[2]	18-ounce can	13.4	13.4	13.5

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Not included in index.
[3] Revised.
[4] Composite prices not computed.

Details by Regions and Cities

On March 18, average costs of food were higher than a month earlier in 37 cities, lower in 11 cities, and in 3 there was no change. Increases of 1 percent or more occurred in 11 cities, with the largest advances reported for Los Angeles (1.8 percent), Mobile (1.6 percent), and

Dallas (1.5 percent). In these 3 cities the higher costs were due to increased prices for meats and greater than average advances for fresh fruits and vegetables. The largest declines in total food costs were reported for Newark (1.0 percent), New York (0.6 percent), and St. Paul (0.6 percent) where prices were reduced for meats, dairy products, and fresh fruits and vegetables.

Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for March and February 1941 and March 1940.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *March and February 1941 and March 1940*

[1935–39=100]

Region and city	1941		1940	Region and city	1941		1940
	Mar. 18 [2]	Feb. 18	Mar. 12		Mar. 18 [2]	Feb. 18	Mar. 12
United States	98.4	97.9	95.6	South Atlantic:			
New England:				Atlanta	96.7	95.8	96.0
Boston	96.1	96.2	95.9	Baltimore	99.1	98.3	96.6
Bridgeport	96.8	96.4	96.2	Charleston, S. C	96.1	95.9	95.7
Fall River	98.4	98.4	96.8	Jacksonville	99.0	99.2	95.9
Manchester	97.2	[3] 96.7	97.8	Norfolk	100.6	99.5	93.0
New Haven	96.3	96.1	95.3	Richmond	94.9	94.7	91.1
Portland, Maine	94.5	[3] 94.6	92.9	Savannah	100.7	[3] 100.0	97.3
Providence	97.0	97.3	96.3	Washington, D. C	99.3	98.8	96.1
Middle Atlantic:				East South Central:			
Buffalo	100.8	[3] 100.3	96.6	Birmingham	95.3	[3] 95.6	[3] 92.5
Newark	99.2	100.2	99.3	Louisville	96.2	95.8	93.5
New York	99.8	100.4	99.8	Memphis	95.7	94.8	92.3
Philadelphia	95.2	94.9	93.2	Mobile	99.8	[3] 98.2	[3] 96.7
Pittsburgh	98.5	97.5	93.8	West South Central:			
Rochester	100.3	99.8	97.2	Dallas	93.5	92.1	90.6
Scranton	97.6	97.7	96.4	Houston	102.1	102.1	97.7
East North Central:				Little Rock	95.6	95.6	95.3
Chicago	98.4	97.9	94.2	New Orleans	102.9	102.0	99.8
Cincinnati	97.6	96.5	92.6	Mountain:			
Cleveland	100.2	[3] 99.3	95.9	Butte	98.3	98.4	94.6
Columbus, Ohio	94.0	93.2	92.0	Denver	95.1	94.4	93.9
Detroit	98.4	97.2	94.5	Salt Lake City	98.4	97.8	94.9
Indianapolis	98.8	97.9	94.0	Pacific:			
Milwaukee	96.3	[3] 95.4	92.8	Los Angeles	100.8	99.0	95.6
Peoria	100.3	[3] 99.4	95.0	Portland, Oreg	102.8	101.6	97.5
Springfield, Ill	97.0	[3] 96.5	93.0	San Francisco	100.6	99.6	95.0
West North Central:				Seattle	102.4	101.1	98.7
Kansas City	94.8	93.6	91.2				
Minneapolis	100.2	100.5	97.1				
Omaha	97.4	97.3	94.3				
St. Louis	99.5	99.3	95.2				
St. Paul	98.0	98.6	93.3				

[1] Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Revised.

ELECTRICITY AND GAS

Price Changes Between December 1940 and March 1941

RESIDENTIAL rates are secured from 51 cities for electricity and from 50 cities for gas. These rates are used in the computation of monthly bills for blocks of consumption which have been selected as representative of average conditions throughout the country.

Prices of electricity are based upon the monthly use of 25 kilowatt-hours for lighting and small energy-consuming appliances; 100 kilowatt-hours for greater use of lighting and small appliances, and an electric refrigerator; and 250 kilowatt-hours for a still greater use of lighting, a larger number of small appliances, and both an electric refrigerator and an electric range.

Prices of gas are based upon 10.6 therms for the use of a range; 19.6 therms for range and manual type water heater; 30.6 therms for range and automatic storage or instantaneous water heater; and 40.6 therms for range, automatic water heater, and gas refrigerator.

Quarterly reports published in March, June, and September show changes for the preceding 3 months. The December report presents prices effective on the 15th of December and a summary of all changes during the year.

ELECTRICITY

Decreases in electricity rates between December 1940 and March 1941 occurred in two cities—Denver and Washington. These decreases did not affect quotations to customers using 25 kilowatt-hours or less per month. In Denver, the reductions amounted to 13.6 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours and 18.1 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours. In Washington, decreases were 1.9 percent and 0.6 percent for 100 and 250 kilowatt-hours, respectively.

A slight increase, amounting to about one-half of 1 percent, was reported in Richmond Borough, New York City, due to the usual adjustment for higher costs of coal.

GAS

Rate reductions between December 1940 and March 1941 were reported for three cities—Detroit, Minneapolis, and Los Angeles. The greatest decrease was in Detroit where a reduction in the "Immediate rate," applicable to about half of the domestic consumers in the city, provided decreases ranging from 9.9 percent for 10.6 therms to 19.4 percent for 40.6 therms. The reductions for all customers in Minneapolis and for customers in Los Angeles using up to 19.6 therms amounted to 2 percent or less. In Los Angeles the costs for 30.6 therms and 40.6 therms were lower by 2 percent and 3 percent, respectively.

FOOD AND CLOTHING PRICES IN THE SOVIET UNION, JANUARY 1941 [1]

NO SWEEPING changes in the Moscow prices of either foodstuffs or wearing apparel have been effected since July 1940,[2] although the

[1] Data supplied by the United States Embassy at Moscow.

[2] Monthly Labor Review, February 1941 (pp. 474-476).

prices of certain articles have been lowered since that time while others have been raised. Thus, the abnormally high prices of candy and chocolate have been reduced. The prices of certain kinds of vegetables are considerably below those quoted at that time, mainly because of seasonal fluctuations. The prices of black (rye) and white bread have been increased.

The increase of 24.8 percent in prices as noted for January 1, 1941, in comparison with the level prevailing on January 1, 1940, does not reflect the actual movement of retail prices, for on the earlier date only 44 items of the foodstuffs forming the basis of price studies were available for sale, whereas on January 1, 1941, as many as 100 of these items could be obtained. The total number of such items available in the State stores in Moscow in 1936 was 129. As compared with January 1, 1936, it will be noted that the prices of all categories of foodstuffs available for sale have increased by 56.6 percent. This is less than the increase registered on July 1, 1940, as compared with July 1, 1936, when the corresponding figure was 72.8 percent. The main reason for this difference is the variation in the number of items available for sale on July 1, 1940, and on January 1, 1941. The reduction of certain abnormally high prices since July 1940 has also accounted for the smaller percentage of price increase.

Moscow seems at present to have abundant supplies of foodstuffs, with the exception of certain types of fruits and canned goods. There were more canned goods on the market in January 1941, however, than was the case in July of last year.

Most of the goods listed in the accompanying tables can now be obtained in the stores without much difficulty. This is in marked contrast with the situation in January 1940, when there was an acute shortage of practically all types of foodstuffs.

The apparent abundance of foodstuffs in Moscow is due only in part to an actual improvement in the food supply. The principal explanation is a notable and continuous decline in the purchasing power of the population, as the policy of the Government with regard to wages, labor, and employment, and above all the sharp increases in prices on consumers' goods, has resulted in an increasing shortage of ready cash in the hands of the civil population.

With respect to clothing it will be noted that out of the total of 43 items listed in table 1, 35 were available on January 1, 1941. The prices on these remain very high, even though in the case of several articles they have been reduced as compared with July 15, 1940. The increase over the price level of January 1936 stands at 112.2 percent. No comparison can be made with the price level of January 1, 1940, since on that date practically no clothing was available for sale.

The decline in the purchasing power of the people has visibly affected sales of wearing apparel and clothing and in January there were fewer

purchasers in the stores than during any recent preceding months. The population is undoubtedly very much in need of many articles of clothing which are now available for sale, but their shortage of currency, coupled with the very high prices, prevents them from acquiring these articles.

The prices are quoted in paper rubles, the value of which is fixed by the Soviet Government.[3] There is no way of evaluating the ruble in terms of United States currency.

TABLE 1.—*Retail Prices of Specified Commodities in Soviet Government Stores, January 1, 1936, 1940, and 1941* [a]

Commodity and unit [1]	Retail price (in rubles) on January 1—			Commodity and unit [1]	Retail price (in rubles) on January 1—		
	1936	1940	1941		1936	1940	1941
Grain products and miscellaneous foods				*Meats and fish*—Con.			
Bread:				Veal, kg	10.60	(2)	(2)
Black, rye, kg	0.85	0.85	1.00	Pork chops, kg	10.60	(2)	20.80
White, wheat, kg	1.70	1.70	1.70	Pork roast, kg	10.60	(2)	20.00
French loaf, 200 gm	1.08	1.20	1.20	Mutton chops, kg	9.60	(2)	(2)
Chocolate (Mignon), 100 gm	5.45	(2)	9.00	Mutton, kg	8.00	(2)	14.00
Candy:				Chicken, first quality, kg	7.60	(2)	14.00
Bonbons, first quality, kg	17.00	22.00	33.00	Ham:			
Chocolate, best, kg	31.60	51.60	71.00	Fresh, kg	9.00	(2)	17.50
Cocoa [3], 250 gm	15.55	15.55	18.06	Smoked, kg	18.00	(2)	27.00
Coffee, roasted [3], kg	53.80	(2)	49.00	Chicken:			
Tea, 400 gm	32.00	(2)	40.00	Broilers, kg	11.00	(2)	(2)
Pepper, black, ground, 100 gm	8.00	8.00	8.00	Second quality, kg	(2)	(2)	11.00
Sunflower oil, kg	13.50	15.65	15.65	Geese:			
Olive oil, kg	40.00	(2)	(2)	First quality, kg	7.60	(2)	14.00
Sugar, granulated, kg	3.80	3.80	5.00	Second quality, kg	(2)	(2)	11.00
Sugar, lump, kg	4.10	4.10	5.50	Duck, kg	11.00	(2)	16.00
Wheat meal, kg	4.50	(2)	4.50	Turkey, kg	11.00	(2)	18.00
Barley grits:				Salmon, frozen ("keta"), kg	4.00	(2)	7.60
Whole, kg	3.00	(2)	3.00	Perch, frozen, kg	3.80	(2)	8.50
Fine, kg	1.50	(2)	1.50	Sturgeon, chilled, kg	8.60	(2)	15.00
Shelled oats grits, kg	.90	(2)	1.30	Pike perch, frozen, kg	3.40	(2)	(2)
Rolled oats, 250 gm	.75	(2)	(2)	Salmon, cured ("Semga"):			
Buckwheat grits, kg	4.30	(2)	4.50	First quality, kg	20.00	(2)	40.00
Shelled millet grits, kg	2.10	(2)	3.00	Second quality, kg	15.00	(2)	35.00
Vermicelli, kg	3.00	(2)	5.30	Sturgeon, cured ("Balyk"):			
Macaroni, kg	4.70	(2)	6.10	First quality, kg	18.00	30.00	40.00
Noodles, kg	3.00	(2)	5.30	Second quality, kg	13.00	(2)	35.00
Flour:				Caviar:			
72 percent, kg	4.20	(2)	2.90	Granulated, kg	36.00	(2)	100.00
30 percent, kg	6.00	4.60	4.60	Compressed, kg	32.00	(2)	86.25
Rice, kg	6.50	(2)	6.50	Herring:			
Salt, kg	.05	.05	.05	Salted, kg	7.00	(2)	10.00
Soap, kerosene, etc.				Smoked, kg	7.00	(2)	11.00
Laundry soap, kg	3.00	3.10	3.10	Bacon, kg	15.00	(2)	27.00
Glycerine soap, cake	1.60	1.60	2.20	Sausage:			
Matches, box	.03	.05	.05	Ordinary, kg	10.00	10.00	16.00
Kerosene, liter	.47	.65	.65	Vienna, kg	9.40	(2)	19.00
Meats and fish				Hamburger, kg	16.00	(2)	23.00
Beef:				Cracow, kg	14.00	(2)	22.00
Steak (fillet of beef), kg	12.50	14.00	20.80	Salami, kg	30.00	30.00	37.00
Roast, kg	9.60	10.50	18.00	Salt pork, fat, kg	22.00	(2)	35.00
Second quality (for soup), kg	7.60	9.00	14.00	Lard:			
Chops, kg	9.60	(2)	19.20	First quality, kg	23.00	(2)	(2)
				Second quality, kg	22.00	(2)	(2)
				Canned goods			
				Pork and beans, 500 gm	2.50	(2)	(2)
				Tongue, 400 gm	8.00	(2)	9.20
				Green peas, 500 gm	2.40	(2)	2.68
				Corn, 500 gm	1.20	(2)	(2)
				Tomatoes, kg	3.50	(2)	(2)

See footnotes at end of table.

[3] See Monthly Labor Review for November 1939 (pp. 1276–1277).

TABLE 1.—*Retail Prices of Specified Commodities in Soviet Government Stores, January 1, 1936, 1940, and 1941*[a]—Continued

Commodity and unit[1]	Retail price (in rubles) on January 1—		
	1936	1940	1941
Canned goods—Con.			
Sardines in oil, 250 gm.	3.00	(2)	(2)
Fish in tomato sauce (perch), 500 gm.	3.00	(2)	7.20
Anchovy ("kilki"), 400 gm.	4.20	(2)	(2)
Anchovy ("shproty"), 200 gm.	4.50	(2)	(2)
Meat, 400 gm.	4.40	(2)	7.30
Milk, evaporated, 500 gm.	3.00	(2)	(2)
Pepper, stuffed, 400 gm.	1.80	(2)	(2)
Vegetables			
Potatoes, kg.	.35	.50	.90
Cabbage, kg.	.30	(2)	(2)
Sauerkraut, kg.	.40	(2)	1.50
Lettuce, kg.	8.00	(2)	(2)
Cucumbers:			
Fresh, 10 pieces	30.00	(2)	(2)
Pickled, kg.	2.00	(2)	3.40
Onions, kg.	1.50	1.50	3.00
Green onions, kg.	1.25	2.00	3.00
Mushrooms:			
Dried, kg.	30.00	(2)	35.00
Pickled, kg.	2.50	(2)	5.60
Beets, kg.	.26	.50	1.00
Carrots, kg.	.40	.50	1.50
Dairy products			
Milk, fresh, liter	1.60	2.10	2.30
Cream:			
Fresh, do.	6.20	(2)	9.80
Sour, kg.	9.60	6.80	11.00
Cheese:			
Swiss-type, kg.	26.00	24.80	31.50
American-type, kg.	24.00	(2)	28.00
Holland-type, kg.	14.50	(2)	25.30
Holland[3], kg.	14.80	(2)	(2)
Butter:			
First quality, kg.	23.00	(2)	28.00
Second quality, kg.	19.00	17.50	26.00
Eggs, 10 pieces	6.50	8.50	7.50
Fruits, berries, nuts			
Apples, kg.	5.00	6.40	10.00
Pears, kg.	6.50	(2)	(2)
Lemons[3], kg.	25.00	(2)	(2)
Grapes, kg.	7.00	(2)	9.00
Hazelnuts (filberts), kg.	9.00	(2)	(2)
Walnuts, kg.	10.00	(2)	(2)
Almonds, kg.	15.00	(2)	(2)
Raisins, kg.	10.00	(2)	(2)
Dried apples, kg.	6.60	(2)	(2)
Dried prunes, kg.	14.00	(2)	14.50
Dried mixed fruits, kg.	8.00	(2)	(2)
Honey, kg.	6.00	(2)	10.60
Clothing			
Suit, men's:			
Soviet wool cloth, each	650.00	900.00	1,130.00
Best Soviet wool cloth, each	850.00	(2)	1,600.00
Common quality, do.	325.00	450.00	695.00
Overcoat:			
Soviet wool cloth, do.	700.00	(2)	1,300.00
Best Soviet wool cloth, do.	1,000.00	(2)	2,400.00
Common quality, do.	325.00	460.00	725.00
Underwear:			
Cotton, knit, pair	26.00	(2)	(2)
Woolen, knit, do.	120.00	(2)	(2)
Socks:			
Rayon, do.	7.00	7.50	10.00
Woolen, do.	15.00	(2)	35.00
Cotton, do.	2.50	3.60	5.00
Hose, women's:			
Cotton, do.	3.20	4.50	8.50
Rayon, do.	19.00	(2)	22.00
Silk, do.	40.00	(2)	(2)
Shoes, men's:			
Leather, do.	165.00	175.00	280.00
Best quality, do.	225.00	(2)	404.00
Rubber soles, do.	60.00	75.00	187.00
Shoes, women's, do.	167.00	(2)	325.00
Best, do.	215.00	(2)	442.00
Common quality, do.	60.00	85.00	170.00
Overshoes:			
Men's rubber, do.	25.00	19.65	33.00
Women's rubber, do.	25.00	19.65	33.00
Shirt, cotton, each	50.00	65.00	105.00
Sheet, cotton, single bed, each	18.00	(2)	35.00
Tablecloth, linen, do.	40.00	45.00	73.00
Towel, linen, do.	7.50	(2)	(2)
Necktie, rayon, do.	10.00	19.00	19.00
Sweaters:			
Woolen, knit, do.	130.00	(2)	(2)
Cotton, knit, do.	30.00	(2)	(2)
Hat, felt, do.	45.00	40.00	44.00
Caps:			
Woolen, do.	22.00	35.00	53.00
Fur, Astrakhan, do.	200.00	(2)	505.00
Gloves:			
Leather, men's, pair	40.00	(2)	(2)
Kid, women's, do.	55.00	(2)	(2)
Cloth:			
Woolen, light, meter	100.00	210.00	415.00
Woolen, heavy, do.	180.00	250.00	550.00
Flannel, cotton, do.	5.50	7.50	16.00
Satinette, do.	6.50	7.50	14.50
Calico, do.	3.20	3.50	7.50
Mixed wool and cotton (for trousers), meter	50.00	75.00	120.00
Light woolen (for dresses), meter	100.00	180.00	250.00
Crepe de chine, do.	44.00	90.00	114.00
Cotton shirting ("Zephir"), meter	6.50	(2)	(2)

[a] As reported by the United States Embassy at Moscow.
[1] Kilogram (1,000 grams)=2.204 pounds; liter=1.057 liquid quarts; meter=39.37 inches.
[2] Not available.
[3] Foreign origin.

Table 2 shows fluctuations, by commodity groups, on January 1 of the 3 years 1936, 1940, and 1941.

TABLE 2.—*Fluctuations in Retail Prices, January 1, 1936, 1940, and 1941, by Commodity Groups*

Commodity group	January 1, 1936	January 1, 1940	January 1, 1941—Price for comparison with—	
			January 1, 1936	January 1, 1940
	Rubles	*Rubles*	*Rubles*	*Rubles*
Grain products and miscellaneous foods	232.18	129.10	306.66	164.76
Soap, kerosene, and matches	5.10	5.40	6.00	6.00
Meats and fish	413.50	103.50	800.65	145.80
Canned goods	17.80		26.38	26.38
Vegetables	38.66	5.00	54.90	9.40
Fruits, berries, nuts	32.00	6.40	44.10	10.00
Dairy products	130.40	59.70	169.10	78.30
Alcoholic beverages	66.50	84.40	84.40	84.40
Tobacco products	36.00	29.95	29.95	29.95
Total, all groups	972.14	423.45	1,522.14	528.61
Wearing apparel, cloth, etc	5,712.90		12,125.50	12,125.50

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN MARCH 1941 [1]

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics index of commodity prices in wholesale markets rose 1.1 percent in March to 81.5 percent of the 1926 average, the highest level since December 1937. Sharp advances in prices for fats and oils, higher prices for grains occasioned by increased loan values, and marked increases for leading imported commodities caused by the tight shipping situation and increased transport costs largely accounted for the advance.

Except for a slight reaction last month, the index has risen steadily since September 1940 and is more than 5 percent above the 1940 low point of 77.4 in August.

The indexes for 9 of the 10 major commodity groups advanced during the month. Textile products rose 2.6 percent; foods, 2.3 percent; farm products, 1.8 percent; chemicals and allied products, 1.7 percent; hides and leather products, 1 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 0.9 percent; housefurnishing goods, 0.4 percent; building materials, 0.2 percent; and metals and metal products, 0.1 percent. The fuel and lighting materials group index declined 0.1 percent.

Higher prices for agricultural commodities were largely responsible for an advance of 1.8 percent in average prices for raw materials, which are also at the highest level since late 1937. Semimanufactured commodities rose 2.2 percent and manufactured commodities advanced 0.8 percent. The index for the large group "All commodities other than farm products" rose 1.1 percent to a 3½-year peak and "All commodities other than farm products and foods" advanced 0.6 percent in March.

When compared with March 1940, food prices have risen over 7 percent; building materials, more than 6½ percent; and textile products and farm products, approximately 5½ percent.

Average wholesale prices of farm products were nearly 2 percent higher in March than in February, largely because of an advance of over 5 percent for grains. Wheat rose more than 6 percent and quotations were also higher for barley, corn, oats, and rye. Livestock and

[1] More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Prices pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

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poultry prices varied, with sheep and poultry considerably higher than for last month, while calves, steers, and hogs were lower. Sharp advances were reported in prices for cotton, eggs, apples, oranges, hops, and onions. Fresh milk at Chicago, beans, flaxseed, alfalfa seed, wool, and tobacco were slightly higher. Quotations were lower for lemons, sweetpotatoes, and hay.

Marked advances in prices for edible fats and oils, imported foods, and fruits and vegetables were largely responsible for the 2.3 percent increase in the foods group index for March. Pepper advanced over 33 percent; cocoa beans, 23 percent; coffee and sugar, approximately 10 percent; tallow, 17 percent; cottonseed oil, 14 percent; lard, 11 percent; and olive and soybean oils, 9 percent. Smaller increases were reported in prices for glucose, oleomargarine, oleo oil, peanut oil, tea, and fish. Fruits and vegetables as a group rose 2.2 percent and cereal products increased 1.9 percent. Higher prices were reported for dried fruits and canned vegetables and for flour, corn meal, and rice. Meat prices averaged fractionally higher, principally because of substantially higher prices for dressed poultry and mutton, together with smaller increases for fresh beef at New York, fresh pork, bacon, and lamb. Prices were lower for fresh beef at Chicago, and for veal and most cured pork.

Wholesale prices of hides and skins rose 4.5 percent. Leather and luggage advanced fractionally.

Heavy buying in the trade and demand created by the defense program accounted for a further average gain of 4.6 percent in prices for cotton textiles, which are now 13 percent above a year ago. Raw silk, silk yarns, burlap, sisal, jute, hemp, and cordage rose sharply. Woolen and worsted goods were up 2.2 percent and clothing advanced fractionally.

In the fuel and lighting materials group, higher prices for Pennsylvania fuel oil and Oklahoma gasoline were more than offset by weakening prices for coal, Oklahoma fuel oil, kerosene, and gasoline in the North Texas field with the result that the group index declined 0.1 percent.

Higher prices for pig tin, pig lead, quicksilver, lead pipe, and scrap steel at Chicago, as well as for tools and heating equipment, brought the metals and metal products group index up 0.1 percent and offset the February decline.

Average wholesale prices of building materials advanced 0.2 percent in March, due mainly to higher prices for paint materials including an increase of 28 percent for shellac and smaller increases for red lead, litharge, and tung and linseed oils. Quotations were higher also for gravel, sand, and lime and for common building brick. The lumber index dropped 0.4 percent as a result of weakening prices for red cedar shingles and most types of yellow pine lumber. Prices

were higher for maple and pine flooring, gum, oak, poplar, sugar pine, Idaho pine, and redwood lumber.

The advance of 19 percent in prices of industrial fats and oils contributed in a large degree to the rise of 1.7 percent in the chemicals and allied products group index. Palm oil advanced about 61 percent during the month; copra rose 30 percent; coconut oil, 26 percent; and soybean oil and tallow, over 14 percent. Quotations were also higher for oleic and stearic acid, cream of tartar, soda phosphate, tin tetrachloride, and tartaric acid.

Further advances in prices for blankets, pillow cases, sheets, carpets, rugs, dinner sets, and electric refrigerators caused the housefurnishing goods group index to advance 0.4 percent to the highest level since December 1937.

Crude rubber prices averaged 8 percent higher during March and boxboard advanced slightly. Prices were also higher for cattle feed and for cylinder oil, paraffin wax, soap, and cooperage.

Indexes for the groups and subgroups of commodities for February and March 1941 and for March 1940 and the percentage changes from a month ago and a year ago are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, March 1941 With Comparisons for February 1941 and March 1940*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	March 1941	February 1941	Change from a month ago	March 1940	Change from a year ago
			Percent		*Percent*
All commodities	**81.5**	**80.6**	**+1.1**	**78.4**	**+4.0**
Farm products	**71.6**	**70.3**	**+1.8**	**67.9**	**+5.4**
Grains	67.8	64.5	+5.1	73.4	−7.6
Livestock and poultry	82.5	82.4	+.1	67.1	+23.0
Other farm products	65.6	64.2	+2.2	66.3	−1.1
Foods	**75.2**	**73.5**	**+2.3**	**70.2**	**+7.1**
Dairy products	80.3	79.7	+.8	78.6	+2.2
Cereal products	75.2	73.8	+1.9	82.4	−8.7
Fruits and vegetables	60.7	59.4	+2.2	58.7	+3.4
Meats	83.7	83.6	+.1	69.2	+21.0
Other foods	68.9	64.2	+7.3	63.0	+9.4
Hides and leather products	**102.6**	**101.6**	**+1.0**	**101.8**	**+.8**
Shoes	107.4	107.4	0	108.4	−.9
Hides and skins	99.1	94.8	+4.5	94.3	+5.1
Leather	94.8	94.5	+.3	93.5	+1.4
Other leather products	100.5	99.7	+.8	100.0	+.5
Textile products	**78.4**	**76.4**	**+2.6**	**74.0**	**+5.9**
Clothing	87.7	87.2	+.6	85.1	+3.1
Cotton goods	81.1	77.5	+4.6	71.8	+13.0
Hosiery and underwear	60.4	60.3	+.2	62.2	−2.9
Rayon	29.5	29.5	0	29.5	0
Silk	47.7	43.3	+10.2	49.9	−4.4
Woolen and worsted goods	93.2	91.2	+2.2	84.5	+10.3
Other textile products	80.1	76.8	+4.3	74.9	+6.9
Fuel and lighting material	**72.0**	**72.1**	**−.1**	**72.2**	**−.3**
Anthracite	81.0	81.1	−.1	79.2	+2.3
Bituminous coal	100.3	100.3	0	97.3	+3.1
Coke	113.8	113.8	0	109.6	+3.8
Electricity	(1)	(1)		77.1	
Gas	77.0	77.6	−.8	80.4	−4.2
Petroleum and products	49.9	50.0	−.2	50.4	−1.0

[1] Data not yet available.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities March 1941 With Comparisons for February 1941 and March 1940*—Continued

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	March 1941	February 1941	Change from a month ago	March 1940	Change from a year ago
			Percent		*Percent*
Metals and metal products	**97.7**	**97.6**	**+0.1**	**95.5**	**+2.3**
Agricultural implements	92.7	92.8	−.1	93.4	−.7
Farm machinery	93.9	94.0	−.1	94.7	−.8
Iron and steel	95.7	95.5	+.2	96.4	−.7
Motor vehicles	99.8	99.8	0	94.8	+5.3
Nonferrous metals	84.3	84.0	+.4	79.7	+5.8
Plumbing and heating	82.8	82.2	+.7	81.0	+2.2
Building materials	**99.5**	**99.3**	**+.2**	**93.3**	**+6.6**
Brick and tile	91.5	91.4	+.1	90.4	+1.2
Cement	90.8	90.8	0	91.2	−.4
Lumber	116.7	117.2	−.4	97.4	+19.8
Paint and paint materials	87.4	86.6	+.9	87.2	+.2
Plumbing and heating	82.8	82.2	+.7	81.0	+2.2
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	95.2	94.9	+.3	92.7	+2.7
Chemicals and allied products	**79.8**	**78.5**	**+1.7**	**77.0**	**+3.6**
Chemicals	85.9	85.7	+.2	85.1	+.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	97.2	96.9	+.3	81.4	+19.4
Fertilizer materials	70.4	70.4	0	70.6	−.3
Mixed fertilizers	73.7	73.8	−.1	73.9	−.3
Oils and fats	55.7	46.8	+19.0	47.8	+16.5
Housefurnishing goods	**89.5**	**89.1**	**+.4**	**88.0**	**+1.7**
Furnishings	95.8	95.3	+.5	94.2	+1.7
Furniture	82.9	82.6	+.4	81.5	+1.7
Miscellaneous	**77.6**	**76.9**	**+.9**	**76.9**	**+.9**
Automobile tires and tubes	58.4	58.2	+.3	55.6	+5.0
Cattle feed	82.7	81.2	+1.8	95.2	−13.1
Paper and pulp	93.5	93.3	+.2	89.0	+5.1
Rubber, crude	45.6	42.2	+8.1	38.3	+19.1
Other miscellaneous	83.4	82.9	+.6	85.8	−2.8
Raw materials	**75.3**	**74.0**	**+1.8**	**72.0**	**+4.6**
Semimanufactured articles	**83.4**	**81.6**	**+2.2**	**79.7**	**+4.6**
Manufactured products	**84.2**	**83.5**	**+.8**	**81.1**	**+3.8**
All commodities other than farm products	**83.6**	**82.7**	**+1.1**	**80.5**	**+3.9**
All commodities other than farm products and foods	**84.9**	**84.4**	**+.6**	**82.9**	**+2.4**

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to March 1941

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1940, inclusive, and by months from March 1940 to March 1941, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was given in Serial No. R. 1251, Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1940.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
By months:											
1940:											
March	67.9	70.2	101.8	74.0	72.2	95.5	93.3	77.0	88.0	76.9	78.4
April	69.4	71.6	101.8	72.9	71.8	94.5	92.5	76.8	88.4	77.7	78.6
May	67.9	71.4	101.3	72.9	71.7	94.5	92.5	76.7	88.5	77.7	78.4
June	66.2	70.3	99.2	72.6	71.4	94.7	92.4	76.1	88.5	77.3	77.5
July	66.5	70.3	99.0	72.4	71.1	95.1	[1] 92.5	77.0	88.5	77.7	77.7
August	65.6	70.1	96.9	72.3	71.1	94.9	[1] 93.3	76.7	88.5	76.7	77.4
September	66.2	71.5	98.3	72.5	71.0	95.4	[1] 95.6	76.8	88.5	76.5	78.0
October	66.4	71.1	100.4	73.6	71.6	97.3	97.8	76.9	88.6	76.9	78.7
November	68.2	72.5	102.3	74.5	71.9	97.6	98.9	77.5	88.6	77.5	79.6
December	69.7	73.5	102.3	74.8	71.7	97.6	99.3	77.7	88.9	77.3	80.0
1941:											
January	71.6	73.7	102.4	75.2	72.1	97.7	99.6	78.6	89.0	77.1	80.8
February	70.3	73.5	101.6	76.4	72.1	97.6	99.3	78.5	89.1	76.9	80.6
March	71.6	75.2	102.6	78.4	72.0	97.7	99.5	79.8	89.5	77.6	81.5

[1] Revised.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months—Con.					
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1940:					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	May	72.0	78.3	81.3	80.5	82.5
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	June	70.7	77.9	80.5	79.8	82.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	July	70.7	77.8	80.9	80.0	82.3
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	August	69.8	77.0	81.0	79.9	82.0
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	September	70.5	77.6	81.5	80.4	82.3
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	October	71.4	79.4	82.1	81.3	83.5
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	November	72.6	80.7	82.6	81.9	84.1
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	December	73.6	80.7	82.8	82.1	84.1
By months:						1941:					
1940:						January	74.6	81.3	83.5	82.7	84.3
March	72.0	79.7	81.1	80.5	82.9	February	74.0	81.6	83.5	82.7	84.4
April	73.0	78.2	81.2	80.5	82.5	March	75.3	83.4	84.2	83.6	84.9

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during February and March are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, February and March 1941*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Mar. 29	Mar. 22	Mar. 15	Mar. 8	Mar. 1	Feb. 22	Feb. 15	Feb. 8	Feb. 1
All commodities	82.0	81.6	80.9	80.6	80.5	80.4	80.5	80.5	80.6
Farm products	73.2	72.3	70.9	70.5	70.4	70.2	70.5	70.7	71.7
Foods	76.4	75.6	74.3	73.4	73.1	73.2	73.3	73.2	73.7
Hides and leather products	103.5	103.3	102.8	102.5	102.1	101.9	101.9	102.2	102.6
Textile products	79.2	78.2	77.2	76.6	76.3	75.6	75.6	75.4	75.2
Fuel and lighting materials	72.6	72.5	72.6	72.6	72.6	72.7	72.7	72.9	72.6
Metals and metal products	97.9	97.8	97.8	97.9	98.0	97.9	97.9	97.8	97.8
Building materials	99.7	99.5	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.3	99.4	99.4	99.5
Chemicals and allied products	80.6	80.0	79.2	78.7	78.6	78.5	78.7	78.6	78.8
Housefurnishing goods	91.2	90.9	90.8	90.8	90.7	90.2	90.2	90.5	90.4
Miscellaneous	77.8	77.5	77.0	76.8	76.7	76.7	76.7	76.8	76.8
Raw materials	76.3	75.6	74.5	74.1	73.9	73.7	73.8	73.8	74.4
Semimanufactured articles	84.4	83.6	82.7	82.2	82.0	81.4	81.2	81.2	81.3
Manufactured products	84.8	84.5	84.0	83.8	83.7	83.7	83.8	83.8	83.8
All commodities other than farm products	84.0	83.7	83.1	82.8	82.7	82.6	82.7	82.6	82.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	85.4	85.1	84.9	84.8	84.7	84.5	84.6	84.6	84.5

INDEX NUMBERS OF STRATEGIC AND CRITICAL MATERIALS

TWO series of index numbers have been prepared for use in connection with the defense program. The first covers market prices for strategic materials and the second for critical materials. The commodities included in each of the groups are those announced on January 30, 1940, by the Army and Navy Munitions Board. Strategic materials, as defined by the Board, are "those essential to national defense, for the supply of which in war dependence must be placed in whole, or in substantial part, on sources outside the continental limits of the United States; and for which strict conservation and distribution control measures will be necessary." Critical materials are those "essential to national defense, the procurement problems of which in war would be less difficult than those of strategic materials either because they have a lesser degree of essentiality or are obtainable in more adequate quantities from domestic sources; and for which some degree of conservation and distribution control will be necessary."

The Bureau has obtained prices for each of the materials specified except optical glass which is classified as a critical material.

The indexes have been computed back to January 1939 and are available on request.

MACHINE TOOL PRICES

THE Bureau has completed a survey made at the request of the Defense Commission covering prices of machine tools.

The results of the survey were issued in a mimeographed report covering prices of 11 standard or nonspecialty types of machine tools. In the selection of these tools the Bureau had the advice of members of the Industry Advisory Committee to the National Defense Commission. The committee also suggested a list of leading manufacturers from whom reports were subsequently obtained and who have been asked to keep the Bureau informed of changes in prices and terms of sale.

The original report "Machine Tool Prices, January 1937–January 1941" and subsequent data are available on request.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR MARCH 1941

Total Nonagricultural Employment

TOTAL nonagricultural employment reached 37,222,000 in March, the highest level on record for this month. This figure does not include CCC enrollees, workers on WPA or NYA projects, nor the armed forces. The March total shows increases of 294,000 from February, 2,370,000 from March of last year, and 1,545,000 from March 1929. This was the fifth consecutive month in which employment had exceeded the levels of corresponding months in all previous years on record.

The largest employment gains over the month were in the manufacturing and trade groups. The gain of 169,000 factory workers was almost double the normal seasonal increase largely because of expansion in defense industries, and the gain of 69,000 in retail and wholesale trade employment was also larger than seasonal. In the transportation and public utility group employment increased by 26,000; in the Federal, State, and local government service group by 30,000; and in the mining group by 8,000. The construction group showed a decrease of 28,000, due primarily to the completion of several important Federal defense projects. All major groups showed substantial employment gains over March 1940, the increases of 1,225,000 in manufacturing industries and 659,000 in construction accounting for a large part of the over-all increase of 2,370,000.

Emergency employment increased 19,000 over the month as a result of the following changes: An increase of 199,000 in the military service and decreases of 128,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration, 23,000 on the out-of-school work program of the National Youth Administration, and 29,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Industrial and Business Employment

Of the 157 manufacturing industries surveyed, 133 reported employment gains and 140 reported pay-roll increases, most of the gains being larger than seasonal. Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly covered, 13 reported employment and pay-roll increases.

The gains from February to March of 169,000 (or 1.8 percent) in employment and $8,350,000 (or 3.5 percent) in weekly pay rolls raised the indexes of factory employment and pay rolls to the highest levels on record. Continued expansion in the war materials industries and in other durable-goods industries affected by defense orders accounted largely for the more pronounced gains over the month and year intervals in the durable-goods group of manufacturing industries than in the nondurable-goods group.

Key defense industries showing substantial employment gains from February to March were shipbuilding, aircraft, machine tools, engines, machine-tool accessories, firearms, screw-machine products, instruments, optical goods, ammunition, and abrasives.

Other manufacturing industries affected by war-material orders and showing large employment gains were foundries and machine shops, electrical machinery, steel, automobiles, brass, bronze, and copper products, and chemicals. Among the few industries showing employment declines were agricultural implements, canning and preserving, and cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal. Labor trouble accounted chiefly for the reduction in agricultural implements and seasonal factors for the declines in the other two industries. Employment in retail stores increased 1.5 percent, slightly more than the average seasonal gain of 1.3 percent. The employment gains among the various retail lines were general, the largest being in shoe stores, women's apparel stores, department stores, and variety stores. Wholesale trade showed a contraseasonal gain in employment (0.3 percent), due chiefly to slightly larger-than-seasonal increases among firms dealing in food products, furniture and housefurnishings, and machinery, equipment and supplies, and to a contraseasonal rise among dealers in metals and minerals. Employment by farm supply dealers fell 7.5 percent following a sharp increase in February. Employment in anthracite mines was reduced 0.8 percent and pay rolls 6 percent, in contrast to average March declines in this industry for the last 12 years of 6.5 percent and 14.1 percent. In bituminous-coal mines, contraseasonal employment and pay-roll increases of 0.9 percent and 4.7 percent reflected the stepping-up of production schedules in anticipation of work stoppages on April 1, the expiration date of contracts between operators and miners.

Employment in private building construction increased only 0.2 percent, about one-twentieth the average March increase for the 1932–40 period of 5.2 percent. A comparison with March of last year, however, showed the current employment level to be 34.3 percent higher. General building contractors as a group reduced employment 1.1 percent between February and March, but showed a gain of 49.9 percent over March of last year, while the special trades group reported gains of 1.3 percent over the month and 21.7 percent over the year.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission for class I steam railroads showed an employment gain of 2.0 percent between February and March, the total number employed in March being 1,050,373. Corresponding pay-roll figures for March were not available when this report was prepared. For February they were $158,824,012, a decrease of $10,908,624 since January.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 40.4 in March, an increase of 0.9 percent since February. The corresponding average hourly earnings were 69.7 cents, a gain of 0.6 percent from the preceding month. The average weekly earnings of factory wage earners (both full- and part-time combined) were $29.11, an increase of 1.7 percent since February. Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly surveyed 11 reported increases in average weekly earnings. Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 9 showed gains in average hours worked per week and 10 reported increases in average hourly earnings.

General wage-rate increases during the month ending March 15 were reported by 296 of the 33,900 manufacturing establishments which supplied employment information in March. These increases averaged 6.7 percent and affected 109,041 or nearly 2 percent of the 6,826,322 wage earners covered. Among the industries in which substantial numbers of workers received pay raises were electrical machinery (7,477), cotton goods (7,014), glass (6,690), canning (6,483), automobiles (4,560), steel (4,360), chemicals (4,496), foundries and machine shops (4,328), and brass, bronze, and copper products (3,225). The wage-rate changes reported for nonmanufacturing industries were negligible. As the Bureau's survey does not cover all manufacturing establishments in an industry, and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings for March 1941 are given in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, for water transportation, and for class I railroads. Percentage changes over the month and year intervals are also given.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, March 1941 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, March 1941	Percentage change from—		Index, March 1941	Percentage change from—		Average in March 1941	Percentage change from—	
		February 1941	March 1940		February 1941	March 1940		February 1941	March 1940
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	(1923–25=100) 119.9	+1.8	+14.8	(1923–25=100) 131.3	+3.5	+31.6	$29.11	+1.7	+14.5
Class I steam railroads [2]	102.9	+2.0	+6.4	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Coal mining:	(1929=100)			(1929=100)					
Anthracite [4]	50.2	−.8	−3.7	42.4	−6.0	+10.4	27.79	−5.3	+14.7
Bituminous [4]	91.4	+.9	+1.9	95.0	+4.7	+21.4	27.89	+3.7	+19.2
Metalliferous mining	74.0	+.8	+11.7	72.7	+1.3	+15.3	30.99	+.5	+3.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	44.1	+4.2	+7.6	40.2	+5.3	+17.8	22.87	+1.0	+9.5
Crude-petroleum production	60.5	−(5)	−4.2	56.8	−1.4	−2.7	37.82	−1.4	+1.5
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph [6]	81.8	+1.2	+7.7	106.8	+2.5	+8.9	[7] 32.04	+1.3	+1.1
Electric light and power [6]	90.4	+.4	+1.2	106.8	+1.3	+4.4	[7] 35.92	+1.0	+3.1
Street railways and busses [6 8]	68.3	+.6	+.1	72.8	+2.5	+4.7	[7] 34.65	+1.9	+4.6
Trade:									
Wholesale [9]	91.7	+.3	+1.3	82.2	+1.0	+5.7	[7] 31.18	+.7	+4.3
Retail [6]	92.1	+1.5	+1.1	86.3	+2.0	+5.2	[7] 21.66	+.4	+4.1
Hotels (year-round) [4 10]	94.3	+.4	+2.5	86.2	+.1	+5.4	[7] 15.78	−.2	+2.8
Laundries [4]	102.6	+1.5	+6.6	90.8	+1.3	+8.0	18.37	−.2	+1.3
Dyeing and cleaning [4]	104.4	+3.0	+4.9	76.9	+3.5	+5.8	20.22	+.4	+.8
Brokerage	(3)	−.4	−11.9	(3)	−1.7	−12.1	[7] 37.32	−1.3	−.2
Insurance	(3)	+.1	+1.5	(3)	+.3	+2.3	[7] 37.34	+.2	+.8
Building construction	(3)	+.2	+34.3	(3)	+.5	+44.8	32.61	+.3	+7.8
Water transportation [11]	79.5	+2.7	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)

[1] Revised indexes. Adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census of Manufactures. See table 9 in December 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for comparable series back to January 1919.
[2] Preliminary. Source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, "Employment and Pay Rolls."
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[6] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Revised series available upon request.
[7] Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the pamphlet dated earlier than January 1938, or in the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.
[8] Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.
[9] Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet of February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review.
[10] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.
[11] Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission.

Public Employment

Progress toward the completion of Army cantonment camps during the month ending March 15 was responsible for a decline of 20,000 in the number of workers employed on defense construction projects financed from appropriations to regular Federal agencies. An employment decrease of 36,000 on defense building construction projects was partly offset by sizable gains on the construction of naval and other vessels and airports. Employment on nondefense construction remained at about the same level as in February. Approximately

851,000 men were at work on defense and nondefense construction during the month, a decrease of 20,000 from February. Total pay-roll disbursements of $109,995,000 were $1,938,000 less than in the preceding month.

Contractors on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority curtailed employment by approximately 4,000 in the month ending March 15. Of the 37,000 men employed on these projects, 6,000 were working on defense housing and 31,000 on other housing. Pay-roll disbursements of $3,485,000 were $515,000 less than in the preceding month.

Employment on construction projects financed by the Public Works Administration dropped to 11,000 during the month ending March 15, a decrease of 3,000 from February. Wage payments of $1,360,000 were $396,000 less than in the preceding month.

A sharp rise in employment was reported on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Approximately 6,000 men were employed on these projects in the month ending March 15, an increase of 2,400 over the month period. Of these, 4,000 were working on national defense projects and 2,000 on other projects. Pay-roll disbursements of $772,000 were $359,000 more than in February.

Employment on work relief projects financed by the Work Projects Administration reflected the greater-than-seasonal gains in nonagricultural employment by showing a decrease of 128,000 in March. Approximately 456,000 of the 1,709,000 persons employed on work relief projects were engaged in defense work and 1,253,000 were employed on nondefense projects. Because exemption from regulations concerning overtime work was granted on defense projects and because of the longer month, March pay rolls of $95,910,000 were $3,465,000 more than in February. Employment on Federal agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration declined from 65,000 in February to 59,000 in March, a decrease of 6,000. Pay-roll disbursements amounted to $2,647,000.

The National Youth Administration reported an employment increase of 13,000 on the student-work program and a decrease of 23,000 on the out-of-school work program. Pay-roll disbursements to the 473,000 employees on the student-work program totaled $3,300,000 and to the 465,000 on the out-of-school work program the amount was $9,006,000.

Employment in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps showed a loss of 29,000 from February to March. Of the 282,900 persons on the pay roll, 248,600 were enrollees; 1,500, educational advisers; 150, nurses; and 32,650, supervisory and technical employees. Pay-roll disbursements of $12,831,000 were $900,000 less than in February.

Increased employment was reported in all of the regular services of the Federal Government. The armed forces were increased by

199,000 from February to March and the executive service showed a gain of 29,000. Slight increases were reported in the judicial and legislative services. Of the 1,202,000 employees in the executive service, 167,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 1,035,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees on the pay roll of the United States Government who are engaged on construction projects, and whose period of employment terminates as the project is completed) were 11 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service.

Further curtailment of employment was reported on State-financed road projects in March. Of the 126,000 on the pay roll, 24,000 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 102,000 on maintenance. Pay-roll disbursements of $10,181,000 were $709,000 more than in February.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially from Federal Funds, March 1941 (Preliminary Figures)*

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	March 1941	February 1941	Percentage change	March 1941	February 1941	Percentage change
Federal services:						
Executive [1]	1,202,348	1,173,663	+2.4	$184,244,306	$175,644,562	+4.9
Judicial	2,509	[2] 2,505	+.2	640,485	[2] 638,641	+.3
Legislative	6,033	5,921	+1.9	1,318,229	1,312,368	+.4
Military	1,343,316	1,144,674	+17.4	77,907,387	69,324,619	+12.4
Construction projects:						
Financed by regular Federal appropriations	850,679	870,697	+2.3	109,995,226	111,932,852	−1.7
Defense	709,226	730,084	−2.9	95,253,528	97,105,709	−1.9
Other	141,453	140,613	+.6	14,741,608	14,827,143	−.6
USHA low-rent housing	36,989	41,448	−10.8	3,485,089	3,999,687	−12.9
Defense	5,701	6,103	−6.6	524,047	592,354	−11.5
Other	31,288	35,345	−11.5	2,961,042	3,407,333	−13.1
Financed by PWA [3]	11,391	14,683	−22.4	1,360,442	1,756,205	−22.5
Financed by RFC [4]	6,011	3,570	+68.4	772,227	413,458	+86.8
Defense	3,968	1,808	+119.5	550,132	202,672	+171.4
Other	2,043	1,762	+15.9	222,095	210,786	+5.4
Federal agency projects financed by Work Projects Administration	58,950	65,323	−9.8	2,647,479	3,581,772	−26.1
Defense	22,229	28,364	−21.6	1,202,492	1,700,239	−29.3
Other	36,721	36,959	−.6	1,444,987	1,881,533	−23.2
Projects operated by WPA	1,708,658	1,836,995	−7.0	95,910,162	92,445,040	+3.9
Defense	455,524	463,151	−1.6	([5])	([5])	
Other	1,253,134	1,373,844	−8.8	([5])	([5])	
National Youth Administration:						
Student-work program	473,417	460,587	+2.8	3,300,411	3,175,708	+3.9
Out-of-school work program	465,283	488,398	−4.7	9,005,825	9,289,872	−3.1
Civilian Conservation Corps	282,896	312,082	−9.4	12,830,524	13,730,562	−6.6

[1] Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 166,561 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $25,752,260 for March 1941, and 166,029 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $23,385,412 for February 1941.

[2] Revised.

[3] Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Includes 3,039 wage earners and $334,173 pay roll for March 1941; 2,875 wage earners and $326,396 pay roll for February 1941, covering Public Works Administration Projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 8,045 wage earners and $1,001,821 pay roll for March 1941, financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

[4] Includes 318 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $27,257 for March 1941; 697 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $94,289 for February 1941 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

[5] Pay-roll data not available.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR FEBRUARY 1941

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of February 1941, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

The estimates of "Total civil nonagricultural employment," given on the first line of table 1, represent the total number of persons engaged in gainful work in the United States in nonagricultural industries, excluding military and naval personnel, persons employed on WPA or NYA projects, and enrollees in CCC camps. The series described as "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" also excludes proprietors and firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and persons in domestic service. The estimates for "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown separately for each of seven major industry groups. Tables giving figures for each group, by months, for the period from January 1929 to date are available on request.

TABLE 1.—*Estimates of Total Nonagricultural Employment, by Major Groups*

[In thousands]

Industry	February 1941 (preliminary)	January 1941	Change January to February 1941	February 1940	Change February 1940 to February 1941
Total civil nonagricultural employment [1]	36,592	36,319	+273	34,381	+2,226
Employees in nonagricultural establishments [2]	30,449	30,176	+273	28,238	+2,226
Manufacturing	10,679	10,495	+184	9,699	+980
Mining	857	852	+5	854	+3
Construction	1,657	1,623	+34	939	+718
Transportation and public utilities	3,015	3,012	+3	2,941	+74
Trade	6,170	6,165	+5	6,026	+144
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,155	4,142	+13	4,084	+71
Federal, State, and local government:					
Civil employees	3,916	3,887	+29	3,695	+236
Military and naval forces [3]	1,145	958	+187	450	+695

[1] Revised series—Excludes military and naval forces. Also excludes employees on WPA and NYA projects as well as enrollees in CCC camps. Includes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants.

[2] Excludes all of the groups omitted from "total nonagricultural employment" as well as proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants.

[3] Not included in totals shown above. Includes members of the National Guard inducted into the Federal service by act of Congress.

The figures represent the number of persons working at any time during the week ending nearest the middle of each month. The totals for the United States have been adjusted to conform to the figures shown by the 1930 Census of Occupations for the number of nonagricultural "gainful workers" less the number shown to have been unemployed for 1 week or more at the time of the census. Separate estimates for "employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown in table 2 for each of the 48 States and the District of Columbia for January and February 1941 and February 1940. Tables showing monthly figures for each State from January 1938 to date are available on request. Because the State figures do not include employees on merchant vessels, and because of certain adjustments in the United States estimates which have not been made on a State basis, the total of the State estimates will not agree exactly with the figure for the United States as a whole.

These estimates are based in large part on industrial censuses and on regular reports of employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and to other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission. Data derived from employers' quarterly reports in connection with "old age and survivors' insurance," and employers' monthly reports in connection with unemployment compensation have been used extensively as a check on estimates derived from other sources, and in some industries they have provided the most reliable information available.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by States*

[Excludes employees on WPA and NYA projects, enrollees in CCC camps, proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, domestic workers, the armed forces of the United States, and employees on merchant vessels]

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	February 1941 (preliminary)	January 1941	Change January to February 1941		February 1940	Change February 1940 to February 1941	
			Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
New England	2,687	2,652	+35	+1.4	2,429	+258	+10.6
Maine	187	185	+2	+1.2	180	+7	+3.6
New Hampshire	133	131	+2	+1.6	123	+10	+8.7
Vermont	71	70	+1	+1.4	69	+2	+2.8
Massachusetts	1,417	1,396	+21	+1.5	1,282	+135	+10.5
Rhode Island	250	245	+5	+2.2	220	+30	+13.7
Connecticut	629	625	+4	+.7	555	+74	+13.4
Middle Atlantic	7,891	7,825	+66	+.9	7,460	+431	+5.8
New York	3,916	3,888	+28	+.7	3,777	+139	+3.7
New Jersey	1,209	1,190	+19	+1.6	1,096	+113	+10.3
Pennsylvania	2,766	2,747	+19	+.7	2,587	+179	+6.9
East North Central	7,109	7,036	+73	+1.0	6,519	+590	+9.0
Ohio	1,856	1,832	+24	+1.3	1,700	+156	+9.2
Indiana	823	808	+15	+1.8	738	+85	+11.5
Illinois	2,305	2,293	+12	+.5	2,152	+153	+7.1
Michigan	1,479	1,457	+22	+1.5	1,328	+151	+11.4
Wisconsin	646	646		(1)	601	+45	+7.5

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by States*—Continued

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	February 1941 (preliminary)	January 1941	Change January to February 1941		February 1940	Change 1940 to February 1941	
			Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
West North Central	2,334	2,325	+9	+0.4	2,218	+116	+5.4
Minnesota	509	510	−1	−.2	487	+22	+4.6
Iowa	396	395	+1	+.4	380	+16	+4.2
Missouri	789	779	+10	+1.4	742	+47	+6.4
North Dakota	73	72	+1	+.4	71	+2	+3.1
South Dakota	79	79		+.1	77	+2	+3.3
Nebraska	191	191		+.5	187	+4	+2.6
Kansas	297	299	−2	−.7	274	+23	+8.5
South Atlantic	3,799	3,750	+49	+1.3	3,374	+425	+12.6
Delaware	71	72	−1	−.9	65	+6	+9.5
Maryland	564	558	+6	+1.1	474	+90	+18.9
District of Columbia	368	363	+5	+1.1	319	+49	+15.1
Virginia	545	534	+11	+2.1	470	+75	+15.9
West Virginia	377	373	+4	+1.1	360	+17	+4.7
North Carolina	611	615	−4	−.5	573	+38	+6.8
South Carolina	315	306	+9	+3.0	276	+39	+14.1
Georgia	509	500	+9	+1.8	460	+49	+10.8
Florida	439	429	+10	+2.4	377	+62	+16.3
East South Central	1,407	1,397	+10	+.7	1,295	+112	+8.6
Kentucky	373	372	+1	+.1	352	+21	+6.0
Tennessee	457	454	+3	+.8	420	+37	+8.7
Alabama	389	384	+5	+1.3	349	+40	+11.3
Mississippi	188	187	+1	+.5	174	+14	+8.2
West South Central	1,952	1,930	+22	+1.1	1,746	+206	+11.7
Arkansas	191	186	+5	+2.2	172	+19	+10.5
Louisiana	400	404	−4	−1.0	355	+45	+12.5
Oklahoma	289	288	+1	+.5	276	+13	+4.6
Texas	1,072	1,052	+20	+1.9	943	+129	+13.7
Mountain	750	750	0	+.2	716	+34	+4.8
Montana	107	108	−1	−.7	103	+4	+4.0
Idaho	79	80	−1	−.3	76	+3	+4.2
Wyoming	51	52	−1	−1.4	47	+4	+8.9
Colorado	214	214	0	−.3	207	+7	+3.3
New Mexico	68	67	+1	+1.3	67	+1	+1.9
Arizona	93	92	+1	+1.1	88	+5	+5.2
Utah	105	105	0	+.7	99	+6	+6.7
Nevada	33	32	+1	+2.7	29	+4	+11.2
Pacific	2,502	2,470	+32	+1.2	2,258	+244	+10.8
Washington	443	433	+10	+2.1	389	+54	+13.6
Oregon	235	233	+2	+.7	217	+18	+8.4
California	1,824	1,804	+20	+1.1	1,652	+172	+10.4

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 157 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; water transportation; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission. They are presented in the foregoing summary.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100 and are adjusted to 1937 census data, except for the aircraft industry and the transportation equipment group, which have been adjusted on the basis of a complete employment survey of the aircraft industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for August 1940, and for all manufacturing industries combined, the durable-goods group, and the nondurable-goods group, which have been adjusted to preliminary 1939 census figures. They relate to wage earners only and are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 of the 157 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 90 industries covered.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities.

The indexes for retail trade have been adjusted to conform in general with the 1935 Census of Retail Distribution and are weighted by lines of trade. For the public utilities they have been adjusted to the 1937 Census of Electrical Industries, for wholesale trade to the 1933 census, and for coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning to the 1935 censuses.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

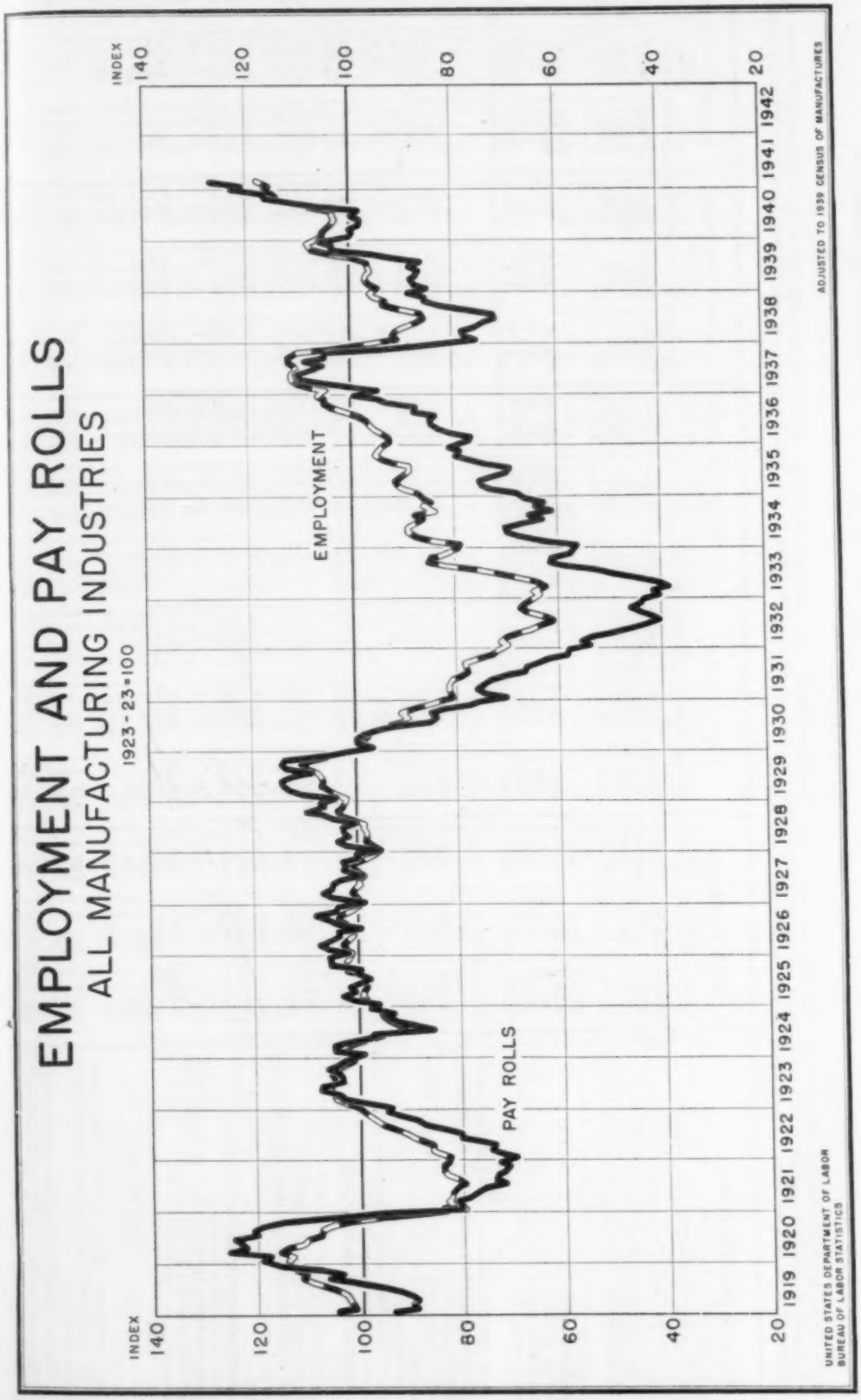
The average weekly earnings shown in table 3 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample vary slightly from month to month. Therefore, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed

to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months, but the changes from February 1940 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND AVERAGE EARNINGS

The indexes of employment and pay rolls as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries for December 1940, and January and February 1941, where available, are presented in table 3. The December and January figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports. Revised figures for metalliferous mining are given in table 4 for the months from January 1938 to January 1941, inclusive.

In table 5 indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 nonmanufacturing industries, by months, from February 1940 to February 1941, inclusive. The indexes for all manufacturing industries combined, the durable-goods group, and the nondurable-goods group have been adjusted to preliminary 1939 census figures. Comparable indexes for all available months and years back to January 1919 are given in tables 9, 10, and 11 of the December 1940 issue of the pamphlet, "Employment and Pay Rolls." The chart on page 1315 indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to February 1941.


EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1923-23-100
INDEX
140
120
100
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60
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EMPLOYMENT
PAY ROLLS
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942
ADJUSTED TO 1939 CENSUS OF MANUFACTURES
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 3.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923–25=100. For "all manufacturing," "durable goods," and "nondurable goods," they have been adjusted to preliminary 1939 census figures. The indexes for all other manufacturing groups and industries except "automobiles" have been adjusted to 1937 census figures and are not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing [2]	117.8	115.4	116.2	126.9	120.7	122.4	$28.56	$27.70	$27.89	40.0	39.0	39.8	69.2	68.9	68.3
Durable goods [2]	121.0	118.3	117.6	139.4	131.9	131.6	32.95	31.90	31.96	41.6	40.6	41.2	76.2	75.8	74.9
Nondurable goods [2]	114.7	112.7	114.8	112.9	108.0	112.1	23.16	22.63	23.09	38.3	37.3	38.4	62.1	62.0	61.7
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	125.0	122.2	121.6	136.9	130.7	132.9	32.25	31.49	32.18	40.7	39.8	41.0	79.1	78.6	78.0
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	133.3	131.3	129.5	145.3	139.9	142.1	34.57	33.66	34.65	39.9	39.1	40.4	86.8	86.1	85.8
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	146.0	138.9	134.7	192.7	170.5	178.0	31.87	29.58	31.82	44.3	41.9	44.4	71.9	70.6	71.7
Cast-iron pipe	89.3	87.6	87.4	97.4	93.3	97.1	26.07	25.42	26.44	41.3	40.5	43.0	62.9	62.6	61.3
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	108.9	107.7	109.8	111.2	106.9	113.7	26.67	25.90	27.11	41.2	40.5	42.2	65.7	65.2	65.3
Forgings, iron and steel [3]	94.5	91.4	88.7	130.2	124.4	119.6	37.29	36.75	36.28	45.2	45.0	45.0	82.7	81.8	80.8
Hardware	114.9	112.8	112.5	134.8	130.4	128.4	28.84	28.30	28.03	41.9	40.8	41.2	68.9	69.5	68.1
Plumbers' supplies	99.3	97.9	96.5	95.9	91.0	93.3	27.92	26.86	28.07	38.8	38.1	39.8	72.1	70.5	70.5
Stamped and enameled ware*	200.6	188.7	196.2	232.7	213.2	225.4	27.32	26.59	26.91	40.3	39.5	40.8	66.8	67.0	66.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	105.9	102.7	102.6	109.8	105.3	105.0	31.28	30.98	31.04	42.6	42.5	43.0	73.6	73.2	72.3
Stoves	99.2	94.5	103.9	94.2	87.1	100.3	26.70	26.07	27.37	39.1	38.7	40.4	69.2	67.8	68.2
Structural and ornamental metalwork	95.9	93.5	90.4	93.8	89.4	86.0	31.67	31.01	30.80	42.2	41.8	41.6	75.0	74.3	74.3
Tin cans and other tinware	104.1	101.9	98.9	117.6	116.6	113.2	25.31	25.55	25.59	39.4	39.8	40.5	64.4	64.6	63.5
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	125.9	120.9	116.5	151.8	140.1	136.1	30.16	29.01	29.24	46.2	44.8	45.4	66.1	65.6	65.0
Wirework	207.8	205.5	206.8	252.5	237.7	242.0	29.71	28.27	28.68	41.7	39.7	41.1	71.3	71.2	69.8

Machinery, not including transportation equipment	143.5	139.8	136.1	176.9	167.5	163.0	34.28	33.34	33.13	44.2	43.2	43.6	77.1	76.8	76.1
Agricultural implements (including tractors)	144.2	149.6	143.2	174.2	180.9	171.3	32.17	32.22	31.87	39.8	39.7	39.5	81.0	81.3	81.0
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	140.3	136.1	135.2	166.3	151.6	148.2	36.99	34.78	34.15	43.4	41.4	41.1	86.2	84.6	83.7
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	136.4	129.4	125.8	175.7	162.7	157.9	33.87	33.00	32.95	43.8	42.8	43.2	77.6	77.3	76.6
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills	235.8	223.2	211.8	344.9	331.4	305.5	38.52	39.12	38.17	45.2	45.3	45.4	85.5	86.6	84.2
Foundry and machine-shop products	120.0	117.4	114.1	136.1	128.7	126.6	33.51	32.51	32.85	44.0	42.9	43.6	76.2	75.7	75.5
Machine tools	299.9	286.2	276.0	450.4	414.0	394.2	41.78	40.08	39.56	51.9	50.4	50.6	79.9	79.6	78.1
Radios and phonographs	144.4	147.5	158.5	146.0	144.9	163.6	24.60	24.08	25.32	38.7	38.2	40.5	63.8	63.2	62.6
Textile machinery and parts	92.9	89.3	86.1	105.2	97.9	90.6	31.36	30.13	28.94	45.6	44.6	42.8	69.0	67.7	67.8
Typewriters and parts	108.5	130.8	132.2	122.0	141.0	147.3	27.58	26.40	27.31	40.9	39.1	41.7	67.4	67.5	65.4
Transportation equipment [4]	157.0	152.6	149.2	190.6	176.1	169.2	38.44	36.56	35.96	42.1	40.4	40.2	91.6	91.1	90.0
Aircraft [4]	5,344.0	5,037.7	4,684.1	6,440.6	5,919.7	5,369.8	35.14	34.13	33.25	45.5	44.7	44.6	78.4	77.6	75.7
Automobiles	129.9	128.3	129.3	159.1	147.5	144.8	40.05	37.61	36.54	41.1	39.0	38.5	97.5	96.6	95.0
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	68.7	69.3	66.0	65.7	63.5	62.3	30.66	29.21	30.08	39.3	38.1	39.8	77.4	76.8	75.6
Locomotives	53.1	49.4	45.7	60.7	55.0	50.1	34.95	34.13	33.55	43.1	42.5	41.9	81.1	80.3	80.0
Shipbuilding	256.3	240.0	221.0	338.1	307.6	288.0	38.91	37.81	38.50	42.9	42.1	42.7	90.3	89.4	89.7
Nonferrous metals and their products	134.7	131.1	131.2	151.8	146.0	149.6	31.12	30.60	31.63	42.1	41.4	42.7	73.9	73.9	73.8
Aluminum manufactures	212.4	212.6	208.6	270.6	265.5	264.0	31.05	30.40	30.90	41.7	40.9	42.0	74.4	74.3	73.5
Brass, bronze, and copper products	176.0	171.5	168.1	226.2	220.1	218.8	35.44	35.18	35.66	44.1	44.0	44.4	80.5	80.4	80.5
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	109.1	106.3	106.2	124.8	115.0	119.6	25.27	23.90	24.88	41.2	38.9	40.8	61.4	61.4	61.0
Jewelry	102.2	96.2	104.2	89.4	81.9	96.9	23.54	22.92	25.00	39.8	38.5	41.5	58.8	58.9	59.6
Lighting equipment	111.3	107.9	110.0	105.0	98.9	102.2	29.04	28.19	28.59	40.4	39.3	40.7	71.6	71.7	70.2
Silverware and plated ware*	78.4	74.7	78.9	77.0	70.8	86.5	28.35	27.37	31.62	42.7	41.4	46.8	67.0	66.6	68.0
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	99.7	97.9	96.7	104.3	101.5	102.7	29.49	29.24	29.96	38.9	38.6	40.0	76.1	75.7	75.0
Lumber and allied products	72.0	71.3	73.7	71.2	68.1	71.5	21.41	20.72	21.06	39.7	38.9	39.5	53.6	52.9	52.8
Furniture	95.8	93.7	97.4	90.0	84.2	92.6	22.32	21.42	22.64	40.0	39.0	41.0	56.0	55.2	55.2
Lumber:															
Millwork	70.0	70.4	71.6	58.2	57.7	59.7	22.81	22.51	23.01	41.3	40.5	41.7	55.9	55.4	55.0
Sawmills	62.9	62.5	64.7	61.6	59.2	60.4	20.26	19.59	19.29	39.1	38.4	38.0	51.8	51.0	50.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	87.0	85.9	88.7	82.1	79.6	85.7	25.62	25.11	26.25	37.2	36.5	38.2	68.3	68.2	68.0
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	64.1	64.8	65.2	54.8	54.6	56.8	22.07	21.74	22.52	37.5	36.9	38.5	58.8	58.7	58.2
Cement	65.8	64.8	71.7	62.3	61.1	72.4	26.93	26.82	28.70	38.0	37.9	40.5	70.9	70.9	70.9
Glass	115.8	114.3	116.8	135.7	131.2	137.6	28.66	28.00	28.77	37.2	36.4	37.7	76.9	77.0	76.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	41.9	39.0	45.1	30.0	26.8	33.4	25.31	24.20	25.85	35.5	34.6	36.6	71.1	70.6	71.3
Pottery *	107.9	104.7	105.6	99.9	95.5	101.9	23.34	22.90	24.47	36.7	36.0	38.5	64.0	64.1	63.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923–25=100. For "all manufacturing," "durable goods," and "nondurable goods," they have been adjusted to preliminary 1939 census figures. The indexes for all other manufacturing groups and industries except "automobiles" have been adjusted to 1937 census figures and are not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940
Nondurable goods													*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Textiles and their products	110.1	106.4	107.0	103.9	95.1	97.6	$19.08	$18.12	$18.46	37.4	35.7	36.7	51.4	51.2	50.7
Fabrics	101.7	99.7	100.4	98.6	93.1	95.6	18.60	17.93	18.28	38.3	36.9	37.9	49.2	49.2	48.8
Carpets and rugs	83.9	82.1	82.4	79.2	74.7	76.2	26.10	25.18	25.64	38.4	37.4	37.9	68.1	67.4	67.6
Cotton goods	102.6	100.7	100.5	101.7	96.9	98.0	16.04	15.60	15.70	38.4	37.2	38.0	41.8	41.9	41.3
Cotton small wares	95.1	91.6	89.6	100.6	92.7	91.5	20.58	19.74	19.87	41.1	39.3	39.9	50.2	50.3	49.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles	139.7	134.9	134.3	128.8	120.2	121.0	22.38	21.65	21.94	40.6	39.3	40.2	55.0	55.1	54.6
Hats, fur-felt	83.7	82.3	83.9	89.0	80.0	81.5	29.52	26.93	26.78	38.6	35.9	35.6	77.1	74.9	74.7
Hosiery	142.9	142.9	146.2	156.8	148.9	160.4	19.41	18.44	19.57	35.8	33.7	35.7	54.7	55.0	54.9
Knitted outerwear	68.4	66.2	71.4	59.9	56.0	61.5	18.14	17.65	17.89	36.6	35.8	36.4	48.9	48.9	48.2
Knitted underwear	78.3	76.9	77.4	76.6	73.4	74.2	16.41	16.06	16.14	37.3	36.0	36.6	44.2	44.6	44.1
Knitted cloth	141.9	139.7	147.5	128.5	125.0	129.8	20.16	19.90	19.64	39.5	37.9	39.3	50.5	50.3	50.0
Silk and rayon goods	66.5	65.0	65.3	55.9	52.6	54.4	17.22	16.53	17.13	37.3	35.7	37.3	46.0	46.1	45.8
Woolen and worsted goods	102.6	99.9	100.9	99.9	93.6	96.3	22.57	21.78	22.15	39.2	37.9	38.9	57.7	57.6	56.9
Wearing apparel	124.2	116.8	117.2	108.0	93.2	95.6	20.39	18.70	18.98	35.7	33.3	34.3	55.5	55.2	54.4
Clothing, men's	114.4	109.5	108.1	96.5	87.3	86.4	21.58	20.36	20.42	36.0	33.5	33.7	59.9	60.5	60.4
Clothing, women's	172.6	161.5	164.2	142.7	119.5	125.5	21.74	19.47	20.09	35.5	33.2	34.7	56.4	55.3	54.2
Corsets and allied garments	114.5	112.0	112.8	126.8	115.8	122.6	18.45	17.24	18.23	38.1	35.6	37.3	48.1	48.2	48.5
Men's furnishings	118.7	107.5	123.3	123.6	103.2	133.2	15.54	14.33	16.17	36.0	33.3	36.5	42.3	42.2	43.0
Millinery	88.8	74.9	60.8	76.3	55.2	41.5	25.72	22.04	20.39	34.4	30.5	29.7	67.4	64.6	63.6
Shirts and collars*	125.4	118.7	122.1	117.2	103.9	115.0	14.63	13.71	14.75	35.6	33.1	35.0	41.6	42.1	41.9
Leather and its manufactures	96.9	93.4	90.6	91.5	83.3	78.5	21.89	20.67	20.05	39.1	37.3	36.5	56.4	55.5	55.2
Boots and shoes	95.0	91.4	88.0	88.9	80.1	73.2	20.92	19.58	18.54	38.9	37.0	35.7	54.0	53.0	52.6
Leather	88.1	85.8	85.8	92.3	86.7	89.5	26.23	25.27	26.16	39.6	38.3	39.9	66.4	66.2	65.9
Food and kindred products	118.9	121.2	130.5	119.4	120.0	132.4	25.25	24.90	25.78	39.5	39.0	40.6	65.1	64.9	64.1
Baking	142.8	140.5	144.1	137.8	134.5	137.7	26.73	26.44	26.39	41.6	41.1	41.0	64.1	64.3	64.4
Beverages	255.0	255.8	260.2	294.2	288.5	299.4	33.72	32.96	33.60	38.0	37.2	38.0	88.9	89.1	88.7
Butter*	91.5	91.6	96.4	81.3	80.1	84.1	23.35	22.84	22.89	45.2	44.6	45.5	51.2	50.9	49.7
Canning and preserving*	84.8	90.6	103.4	76.0	78.8	92.5	17.23	16.73	17.10	33.7	32.9	34.4	51.3	51.3	51.0
Confectionery	85.9	86.7	100.5	88.7	86.3	103.0	20.04	19.19	19.86	38.8	37.6	40.2	52.3	51.9	49.8
Flour	76.6	76.9	77.8	73.0	72.2	72.8	25.66	25.27	25.12	41.3	41.0	40.7	61.6	60.8	60.8
Ice cream	68.3	67.9	69.3	60.1	59.1	60.9	30.19	29.85	30.15	44.6	44.1	44.7	66.6	66.6	65.8
Slaughtering and meat packing	110.6	116.3	125.0	113.5	119.7	137.3	26.70	26.84	28.77	39.0	39.3	42.3	68.5	68.1	68.0
Sugar, beet	49.1	99.5	235.4	49.9	89.1	263.2	26.28	23.11	28.87	37.1	36.5	52.6	77.9	63.0	56.3
Sugar refining, cane	88.9	87.6	94.3	73.3	70.3	85.0	23.47	22.73	25.53	35.6	35.0	38.9	68.3	66.0	65.6
							17.54	17.76	18.70	35.4	35.7	38.1	49.5	49.8	49.0
												37.0	53.9	53.7	53.5

Slaughtering and meat packing	68.3	67.9	69.3	60.1	59.1	60.9	30.19	29.85	30.15	44.6	44.1	40.7	61.6	60.8	60.8	
Sugar, beet	110.6	116.3	125.0	113.5	119.7	137.3	26.70	26.84	28.77	39.0	39.3	42.3	68.5	68.1	68.0	
Sugar refining, cane	49.1	99.5	235.4	49.9	89.1	263.2	26.28	23.11	28.87	37.1	36.5	52.6	77.9	63.0	56.3	
	88.9	87.6	94.3	73.3	70.3	85.0	23.47	22.73	25.53	35.6	35.0	38.9	65.3	65.0	65.6	
Tobacco manufactures	63.7	60.8	65.6	61.7	59.3	67.4	17.54	17.76	18.70	35.4	35.7	38.1	49.5	49.8	49.0	
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	56.5	57.7	57.4	63.5	66.5	69.8	18.12	18.60	19.60	33.7	34.9	37.0	53.9	53.7	53.5	
Cigars and cigarettes	64.6	61.1	66.6	61.3	58.3	67.0	17.42	17.57	18.53	35.6	35.8	38.2	49.0	49.3	48.5	
Paper and printing	117.2	116.7	119.5	117.1	115.4	120.8	30.01	29.75	30.37	39.1	38.8	39.3	80.3	80.2	79.9	
Boxes, paper	118.9	118.4	125.2	136.3	131.8	145.4	22.80	22.32	23.19	39.7	38.8	41.2	58.0	57.8	56.6	
Paper and pulp	117.3	115.7	115.9	132.5	127.5	128.5	27.63	26.99	27.30	41.9	40.8	41.3	66.0	66.2	66.0	
Printing and publishing:																
Book and job	102.8	103.6	105.3	93.1	94.7	97.9	31.42	31.76	32.28	39.2	39.6	39.9	81.4	81.3	81.3	
Newspapers and periodicals	116.2	115.4	119.8	109.9	108.2	116.1	38.42	38.09	39.36	35.7	35.7	36.4	105.1	104.9	106.0	
Chemical, petroleum and coal products	127.8	126.0	125.8	144.1	142.2	144.2	30.22	30.33	30.90	38.8	38.9	39.6	77.0	77.0	76.6	
Petroleum refining	119.0	119.1	119.8	132.0	132.2	139.0	34.44	34.46	36.00	35.7	35.7	37.3	97.0	97.0	96.8	
Other than petroleum refining	129.9	127.7	127.2	147.8	145.2	145.8	28.69	28.81	28.92	39.8	39.9	40.4	70.7	70.6	70.1	
Chemicals	155.1	152.0	149.9	193.9	188.2	187.9	33.50	33.10	33.33	40.6	40.3	40.8	82.6	82.2	81.6	
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal*	112.0	114.3	129.1	104.9	111.0	129.2	15.02	15.55	16.08	43.4	44.6	46.8	34.0	33.8	33.5	
Druggists' preparations	119.1	116.4	115.8	133.4	131.1	130.7	25.23	25.35	25.42	39.3	39.7	39.5	61.1	61.1	61.2	
Explosives	159.0	150.3	148.9	209.2	202.5	199.1	35.96	36.83	36.49	41.0	41.4	41.4	87.6	89.0	88.1	
Fertilizers*	113.2	103.8	95.0	92.8	85.5	80.5	14.69	14.89	15.35	34.9	34.8	35.3	42.1	42.9	43.5	
Paints and varnishes	128.6	126.3	126.0	141.7	137.4	138.7	30.22	29.86	30.15	40.6	40.3	40.8	74.6	74.1	74.1	
Rayon and allied products	311.0	313.5	315.1	327.6	335.9	334.4	26.94	27.40	27.15	38.4	39.2	39.1	70.2	69.9	69.4	
Soap	89.8	85.9	84.8	112.6	107.7	106.3	29.54	29.58	29.54	40.3	40.0	40.3	73.4	74.0	73.3	
Rubber products	100.8	98.8	97.5	114.9	111.0	111.1	31.14	30.68	31.13	39.5	39.2	39.7	78.5	78.0	78.4	
Rubber boots and shoes	68.0	68.0	66.9	78.9	79.2	81.3	26.66	26.76	27.92	41.3	41.9	43.9	64.5	63.9	63.6	
Rubber tires and inner tubes	78.8	77.9	76.9	99.1	96.9	96.4	36.73	36.32	36.59	38.2	38.1	37.8	96.5	95.7	97.1	
Rubber goods other	174.9	168.9	166.6	185.2	173.5	173.9	25.72	24.97	25.39	40.3	39.4	40.4	64.3	63.9	63.4	

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	
Coal mining:																
Anthracite [6]	50.6	50.3	50.8	45.2	38.5	42.7	$29.35	$25.13	$27.60	31.4	27.0	29.7	92.6	92.5	91.9	
Bituminous [6]	90.8	90.2	90.1	91.0	87.8	91.4	26.77	26.00	27.12	30.4	29.7	31.0	88.7	88.5	88.7	
Metalliferous mining [7]	73.0	72.5	72.2	72.7	70.4	72.8	31.29	30.31	31.41	41.3	40.7	42.2	75.4	74.8	74.6	
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	42.3	41.7	45.4	37.9	36.9	42.4	22.38	22.06	23.42	38.7	38.2	40.0	57.8	57.6	58.7	
Crude-petroleum production	60.0	60.5	60.7	56.3	56.2	55.9	33.56	33.27	33.96	37.3	37.8	36.9	89.7	88.3	89.4	
Public utilities:																
Telephone and telegraph [8]	80.5	80.4	79.7	102.9	103.9	103.5	31.30	31.69	31.88	39.1	39.7	39.5	80.7	80.4	81.1	
Electric light and power [8]	89.6	90.5	91.3	104.9	105.1	106.0	35.72	35.49	35.37	39.6	39.4	39.1	90.6	90.3	90.4	
Street railways and busses [8 10]	68.0	68.3	68.4	70.6	70.7	73.1	33.77	33.63	34.91	45.6	45.3	47.4	73.1	73.1	73.0	
Trade:																
Wholesale [8 11]	91.3	91.2	92.5	80.8	80.5	83.4	30.69	30.59	21.25	40.6	40.6	41.5	75.9	75.6	75.6	
Retail [8]	90.6	90.5	108.1	84.0	83.7	97.3	21.59	21.53	20.37	42.7	42.7	42.9	54.6	54.5	52.2	
Food [8]	104.6	103.2	106.4	97.1	96.5	98.8	24.33	24.51	24.45	43.0	43.3	43.4	53.0	53.1	52.4	
General merchandising [8]	93.8	94.0	152.2	86.0	86.5	132.9	18.20	18.22	17.35	38.8	38.8	40.0	46.4	46.5	42.8	
Apparel [8]	77.5	78.5	103.4	73.3	74.5	93.4	21.87	21.89	20.81	38.5	39.0	38.7	56.0	55.8	54.0	
Furniture [8]	75.0	74.8	81.9	66.5	66.2	76.3	28.18	27.96	29.22	44.0	43.7	44.8	67.8	68.3	68.3	
Automotive [8]	86.7	86.2	88.0	83.6	80.9	85.2	29.05	28.26	29.29	47.0	46.7	47.4	62.3	61.0	62.2	
Lumber [8]	71.6	72.7	76.1	67.7	68.5	72.5	26.31	26.16	26.34	41.8	41.7	42.3	64.0	64.0	63.2	

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING—Continued

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940	February 1941	January 1941	December 1940
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Hotels (year-round) [5 8 13]	93.7	92.9	92.6	86.0	84.1	84.1	$15.87	$15.65	$15.78	45.9	45.9	45.7	34.2	33.8	33.9
Laundries [5]	101.0	101.4	100.3	89.6	89.8	89.2	18.41	18.37	18.36	43.1	42.9	43.2	42.8	42.9	42.6
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	101.2	101.0	103.3	74.3	73.3	75.8	20.16	19.92	20.09	42.2	41.9	42.4	49.0	48.8	48.6
Brokerage [5 13]	−2.1	−2.0	+.7	−2.6	−2.6	+3.1	37.71	37.92	37.71	(14)	(14)	(14)	(14)	(14)	(14)
Insurance [5 13]	+.7	+(15)	−.1	+1.3	+1.0	+1.4	37.76	37.52	36.95	(14)	(14)	(14)	(14)	(14)	(14)
Building construction [13]	−2.0	−8.5	−1.9	−.4	−10.3	+5.6	32.67	32.10	32.63	32.8	32.6	33.8	99.7	98.6	96.7

[1] Revised series. Mimeographed sheets giving averages by years, 1932 to 1939, inclusive, and by months, January 1938 to August 1940, inclusive, available on request. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments than average weekly earnings, as not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

[2] See tables 9, 10, and 11 in the December 1940 issue of Employment and Pay Rolls for comparable series back to January 1919 for all manufacturing and back to January 1923 for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups.

[3] Because of expansion in the reporting sample, hours and earnings for forgings are not comparable with those previously published (comparable August, September, October, and November weekly earnings, $32.19, $32.51, $34.30, and $34.35; weekly hours, 41.2, 41.4, 43.1, and 42.6; hourly earnings 78.1, 78.4, 79.7, and 80.7 cents; November employment and pay-roll indexes revised to 83.7 and 106.8).

[4] Revised series—adjusted on basis of a complete employment survey of the aircraft industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for August 1940. Not comparable with previously published indexes from January 1939 to August 1940, inclusive. Comparable figures for this period given in table 9 of the September 1940 issue of Employment and Pay Rolls.

[5] Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet.

[6] See table 7 of October 1940 Employment and Pay Rolls for revised employment and pay-roll indexes, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in anthracite mining, February 1940 to September 1940, inclusive.

[7] See table 7 for revised figures from January 1938 to January 1941, inclusive.

[8] Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

[9] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable to indexes published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940, with but one exception, retail furniture, which has been revised since publication of the July 1940 pamphlet back to January 1936. Comparable series for earlier months available upon request.

[10] Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance."

[11] Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of the pamphlet.

[12] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

[13] Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

[14] Not available.

[15] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

*Revisions in the following industries have been made as indicated:

Stamped ware.—October average weekly earnings and average hourly earnings to $26.81 and 65.7 cents; employment and pay-roll indexes to 189.5 and 216.7.

Silver and plated ware.—October average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, average hourly earnings to $29.91, 45.2 hours, and 67.1 cents; employment and pay-roll indexes to 76.5 and 79.5.

Pottery.—November average weekly hours and average hourly earnings to 37.9 hours and 63.3 cents; pay-roll index to 97.0.

Shirts and collars.—October and November weekly earnings to $14.91 and $14.52; October employment index to 122.0; October and November pay-roll indexes to 114.5 and 110.9.

Butter.—October average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, average hourly earnings to $22.55, 45.5 hours, 48.8 cents; pay-roll index to 81.7.

Canning and preserving.—October and November average weekly earnings to $16.23 and $15.74; October average weekly hours to 37.4; October and November average hourly earnings to 44.2 and 47.8 cents; employment indexes to 201.6 and 123.4; and pay-roll indexes to 170.3 and 100.7.

Cottonseed oil.—October average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, and average hourly earnings to $15.84, 46.3 hours, and 33.0 cents; employment and pay-roll indexes to 137.2 and 135.7.

Fertilizers.—November average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, average hourly earnings to $15.24, 33.8 hours, 45.1 cents; employment and pay-roll indexes to 92.1 and 76.5.

TABLE 4.—*Revised Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Metalliferous Mining, January 1938 to January 1941, Inclusive* [1]

Month and year	Indexes (1929=100)		Average weekly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings
	Employment	Pay rolls			
1938					*Cents*
January	67.4	57.9	$26.79	39.6	67.8
February	63.6	54.6	26.76	39.6	67.7
March	62.3	55.0	27.55	40.7	67.8
April	61.6	52.1	26.38	39.1	67.5
May	58.8	49.9	26.46	39.2	67.7
June	56.0	44.8	24.97	36.9	67.7
July	49.7	36.8	23.25	35.1	66.5
August	51.4	42.4	25.90	38.5	67.6
September	55.2	44.8	25.35	38.1	66.9
October	57.9	49.1	26.52	39.5	67.5
November	61.9	52.2	26.36	38.7	68.4
December	62.3	54.0	27.16	39.8	68.5
Average	59.0	49.5	26.19	38.8	67.7
1939					
January	62.6	55.2	27.69	40.4	68.9
February	60.9	53.3	27.38	39.9	69.0
March	61.0	53.5	27.66	40.2	69.3
April	61.5	52.6	27.03	39.1	69.5
May	61.9	54.0	27.50	40.0	69.1
June	61.6	53.8	27.26	39.4	69.5
July	60.4	48.4	24.91	36.4	68.8
August	60.4	52.9	27.47	39.5	70.1
September	62.9	55.0	27.60	39.6	70.1
October	65.3	63.4	30.64	42.4	72.7
November	66.5	63.8	30.36	41.5	73.6
December	67.3	64.9	30.25	41.2	73.7
Average	62.7	55.9	28.05	40.0	70.5
1940					
January	66.4	63.6	30.05	41.0	73.7
February	66.3	64.1	30.35	41.3	73.9
March	66.2	63.1	29.88	41.2	73.0
April	67.7	63.4	29.30	40.4	72.8
May	69.2	65.7	29.59	41.2	72.2
June	70.3	65.3	28.95	40.1	72.5
July	71.0	63.6	27.95	38.7	72.4
August	71.5	68.5	29.99	41.2	73.1
September	72.5	69.5	29.97	41.1	73.2
October	72.6	71.3	30.75	42.0	73.6
November	72.5	69.8	30.10	40.7	74.3
December	72.2	72.8	31.41	42.2	74.6
Average	69.9	66.7	29.86	40.9	73.3
1941					
January	72.5	70.4	30.31	40.7	74.8

[1] The employment indexes for all of the months January 1938 to January 1941 are the same as those previously published. The pay-roll indexes for the months of April, June, and October 1939 and January, May, August, September, and November 1940 are the same as those previously published. The average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, and average hourly earnings for the months from October 1938 to January 1941 are the same as those previously published.

...to January 1936. Comparable series for earlier months available upon request.

...revised since publication of the July 1940 pamphlet back

...Revised.—November average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, average hourly earnings to $15.24, 33.8 hours, 45.1 cents; employment and pay-roll indexes to 92.1 and 76.5.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing [1] and Nonmanufacturing [2] Industries, February 1940 to February 1941*

Industry	1940												1941	
	Av.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.
	Employment													
Manufacturing														
All industries	107.5	105.0	104.4	103.2	102.5	103.1	103.2	107.4	111.4	113.8	114.6	116.2	115.4	117.8
Durable goods [3]	104.3	99.2	99.1	98.7	99.2	99.8	98.4	102.4	108.2	112.8	115.5	117.6	118.3	121.0
Nondurable goods [4]	110.6	110.5	109.5	107.5	105.6	106.2	107.8	112.2	114.4	114.8	113.8	114.8	112.7	114.7
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining [5]	50.7	51.6	52.2	51.2	51.8	49.7	50.5	49.9	49.8	49.4	50.4	50.8	50.3	50.6
Bituminous-coal mining [5]	88.0	91.7	89.7	86.2	85.1	83.8	84.9	86.6	87.7	89.2	89.8	90.1	90.2	90.8
Metalliferous mining [6]	69.9	66.3	66.2	67.7	69.2	70.3	71.0	71.5	72.5	72.6	72.5	72.2	72.5	73.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	45.3	38.3	41.0	44.5	46.9	47.9	48.1	48.5	48.9	48.8	47.2	45.4	41.7	42.3
Crude-petroleum production	62.9	63.0	63.2	63.1	63.3	63.8	63.7	63.6	63.0	62.4	61.3	60.7	60.5	60.0
Telephone and telegraph [7]	77.9	75.9	76.0	76.7	77.3	77.8	78.8	79.0	78.9	79.1	79.2	79.7	80.4	80.5
Electric light and power [7]	91.1	89.2	89.3	90.0	90.6	91.2	92.2	93.0	92.7	92.3	91.8	91.3	90.5	89.6
Street railways and busses [7 8]	68.5	68.7	68.2	68.3	68.4	68.5	68.4	68.4	68.5	68.7	68.7	68.4	68.3	68.0
Wholesale trade	90.4	90.2	90.5	89.3	88.9	89.6	89.2	90.1	90.9	91.0	91.8	92.5	91.2	91.3
Retail trade [7]	92.3	87.0	91.1	89.8	91.2	91.9	89.1	88.7	92.8	94.3	96.3	108.1	90.5	90.6
Year-round hotels [5]	92.0	92.1	92.0	92.7	93.4	92.0	90.3	90.3	91.6	93.4	92.3	92.6	92.9	93.7
Laundries [5]	99.5	95.8	96.2	97.2	99.1	102.1	102.5	102.8	101.9	100.2	99.7	100.3	101.4	101.0
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	104.7	93.7	99.5	104.5	108.7	112.6	108.2	106.7	110.0	109.4	106.0	103.3	101.0	101.2
	Pay rolls													
Manufacturing														
All industries	105.4	99.3	99.8	97.9	97.8	99.5	98.2	105.5	111.6	116.2	116.4	122.4	120.7	126.9
Durable goods [3]	107.8	97.8	98.7	98.4	98.7	101.4	97.4	106.5	115.1	123.4	125.1	131.6	131.9	139.4
Nondurable goods [4]	102.7	101.0	101.0	97.3	96.8	97.4	99.1	104.4	107.7	108.1	106.6	112.1	108.0	112.9
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining [5]	38.5	32.9	38.4	36.3	40.0	40.6	36.5	33.1	39.3	32.3	37.6	42.7	38.5	45.2
Bituminous-coal mining [5]	81.2	87.0	78.3	72.2	75.3	73.9	75.2	82.5	83.2	83.6	84.5	91.4	87.8	91.0
Metalliferous mining [6]	66.7	64.1	63.1	63.4	65.7	65.3	63.6	68.5	69.5	71.3	69.8	72.8	70.4	72.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	40.5	30.8	34.1	38.1	42.7	43.9	43.5	45.2	46.2	46.7	42.3	42.4	36.9	37.9
Crude-petroleum production	58.2	59.0	58.4	59.0	58.7	58.8	59.1	59.0	58.2	57.6	56.8	55.9	56.2	56.3
Telephone and telegraph [7]	100.2	96.9	98.1	98.7	98.8	100.0	101.3	100.4	101.8	102.2	103.2	103.5	103.9	102.9
Electric light and power [7]	104.8	102.2	102.3	103.3	104.2	104.8	105.8	108.1	105.8	107.0	106.9	106.0	105.1	104.9
Street railways and busses [7 8]	70.4	71.5	69.5	69.2	69.2	70.5	70.0	70.4	71.5	70.7	70.3	73.1	70.7	70.6
Wholesale trade	79.0	77.1	77.8	77.4	77.4	78.4	78.3	78.7	81.1	80.2	80.7	83.4	80.5	80.8
Retail trade [7]	84.2	79.1	82.0	82.3	83.4	84.8	82.6	81.5	85.1	85.8	87.1	97.3	83.7	84.0
Year-round hotels [5]	82.4	82.7	81.8	83.2	83.0	82.0	80.5	80.7	81.8	84.2	83.6	84.1	84.1	86.0
Laundries [5]	87.7	83.1	84.1	85.6	88.5	92.4	90.0	90.5	89.9	88.0	87.2	89.2	89.8	89.6
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	78.2	64.4	72.7	79.6	85.4	89.6	80.0	78.9	85.6	82.4	77.8	75.8	73.3	74.3

[1] 3-year average 1923–25=100—adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census of Manufactures. See tables 9, 10, and 11 of December 1940 Employment and Pay Rolls for comparable figures back to January 1919 for "all manufacturing" and January 1923 for "durable goods" and "nondurable goods."

[2] 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5 and 6.

[3] Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.

[4] Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

[5] Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of the pamphlet.

[6] See table 7 for revised indexes January 1938 to January 1941.

[7] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series January 1929 to December 1939 available in mimeographed form.

[8] Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in January and February 1941 is made in table 6 for 13 metropolitan areas, each of which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas but having a population of 100,000 or over are not included. Footnotes to the table specify which cities are excluded. Data concerning them have been prepared in a supplementary tabulation which is available on request. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 3, with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

Revisions made in the figures after they have gone to press, chiefly because of late reports by cooperating firms, are incorporated in the supplementary tabulation mentioned above. This supplementary tabulation covers these 13 metropolitan areas as well as other metropolitan areas and cities having a population of 100,000 or more according to the 1930 Census of Population.

TABLE 6.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in January and February 1941, by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments, February 1941	Number on pay roll, February 1941	Percentage change from January 1941	Amount of pay roll (1 week), February 1941	Percentage change from February 1941
New York [1]	13,407	756,923	+1.6	$22,649,626	+2.5
Chicago [2]	4,318	509,764	+.6	15,173,200	+2.1
Philadelphia [3]	2,489	272,338	+2.3	8,067,296	+5.2
Detroit	1,613	395,026	+1.0	15,201,764	+5.2
Los Angeles [4]	2,791	216,690	+2.4	6,735,056	+3.6
Cleveland	1,289	149,853	+2.5	4,993,041	+6.6
St. Louis	1,374	144,006	+1.5	3,798,841	+4.6
Baltimore	1,092	132,084	+1.1	3,782,323	+2.3
Boston [5]	2,819	205,734	+2.3	5,777,351	+6.2
Pittsburgh	1,340	240,387	+1.8	7,786,456	+3.9
San Francisco [6]	1,719	100,533	+1.0	3,264,952	+2.9
Buffalo	770	103,501	+2.6	3,283,029	+4.6
Milwaukee	977	116,264	−3.3	3,657,990	−1.5

[1] Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, or Paterson, N. J., or Yonkers, N. Y.
[2] Does not include Gary, Ind.
[3] Does not include Camden, N. J.
[4] Does not include Long Beach, Calif.
[5] Does not include Cambridge, Lynn, or Somerville, Mass.
[6] Does not include Oakland, Calif.

WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN AMERICAN INDUSTRIES

The following table gives information concerning wage-rate adjustments occurring during the month ending February 15, 1941, as shown by reports received from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments which supply employment data to this Bureau.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry, and furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

TABLE 7.—*Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments During Month Ending February 15, 1941* [1]

Group and industry	Establishments			Employees			Average percentage change in wage rates of employees having—	
	Total number reporting	Number reporting—		Total number covered	Number having—			
		Increase	Decrease [2]		Increase	Decrease [2]	Increase	Decrease [2]
All manufacturing	33,721	304		6,633,704	74,598		6.1	
Iron and steel group	2,558	48		965,624	9,677		6.1	
Iron and steel	336	7		510,027	2,673		5.0	
Plumbers' supplies	106	3		27,599	695		7.0	
Stamped and enameled ware	224	4		41,932	219		5.8	
Steam fittings	110	4		38,582	435		5.0	
Stoves	236	8		36,145	1,249		5.4	
Structural and ornamental metalwork	307	3		33,383	155		9.7	
Wirework	159	6		30,724	1,310		6.8	
Screw-machine products	80	3		13,532	1,151		9.5	
Machinery group	3,774	81		999,026	14,356		7.6	
Cash registers	32	3		20,321	1,600		7.8	
Electrical machinery	582	14		278,224	2,737		8.0	
Foundries	2,209	41		321,993	5,648		7.7	
Machine tools	196	6		82,549	1,243		7.8	
Pumps	106	3		17,788	454		5.2	
Transportation group	756	17		783,947	16,335		5.7	
Aircraft	87	3		140,414	1,635		7.9	
Automobiles	391	6		457,247	10,067		5.4	
Shipbuilding	150	7		130,950	4,034		5.5	
Nonferrous group	1,096	10		232,763	931		6.6	
Brass, bronze, and copper products	330	6		86,906	738		5.9	
Lumber group	2,770	26		359,135	3,924		5.3	
Furniture	784	5		107,188	374		8.1	
Sawmills	787	12		134,714	1,956		4.5	
Stone group	1,605	20		208,020	9,053		3.1	
Brick	547	3		41,663	439		5.6	
Glass	148	8		65,595	7,279		2.2	
Pottery	137	3		32,892	308		3.8	
Lime	89	3		6,381	558		7.4	
Textiles and their products	6,609	29		1,344,298	7,016		6.8	
Fabrics	3,524	22		1,000,505	6,535		6.6	
Dyeing and finishing	223	4		59,453	1,668		6.4	
Woolen and worsted goods	427	6		160,153	1,544		9.5	
Wearing apparel	3,085	7		334,793	481		9.0	
Clothing, men's	1,173	5		143,829	439		8.8	
Leather group	1,081	8		242,612	2,463		9.3	
Leather	180	6		38,268	1,273		7.8	
Food group	5,468	11		430,989	709		8.3	
Tobacco group	227	4		70,467	1,558		4.0	
Paper group	4,014	13		378,879	773		7.7	
Paper boxes	670	4		43,764	196		6.4	
Printing and publishing: Book and job	1,599	5		81,974	196		6.4	
Chemical group	2,244	28		328,645	4,377		5.8	
Petroleum	175	5		71,396	1,157		3.1	
Chemicals	238	5		68,690	1,232		6.5	
Paints and varnishes	521	8		23,239	855		7.7	

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 7.—*Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments During Month Ending February 15, 1941* [1]—Continued

Group and industry	Establishments			Employees			Average percentage change in wage rates of employees having—	
	Total number reporting	Number reporting—		Total number covered	Number having—			
		Increase	Decrease [2]		Increase	Decrease [2]	Increase	Decrease [2]
Miscellaneous manufacturing	1,264	7	----	166,671	981	----	8.4	----
Instruments	60	3	----	19,632	697	----	10.3	----
All nonmanufacturing (except building construction)	*86,860	65	----	*2,809,500	2,128	----	5.9	----
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	*1,040	3	----	*32,300	35	----	21.4	----
Electric light and power	*2,750	15	----	*247,000	1,333	----	5.2	----
Street railways and busses	*350	4	----	*130,700	321	----	2.4	----
Wholesale trade	*13,760	13	----	*315,100	206	----	11.3	----
Retail trade	*48,360	25	----	*926,800	197	----	7.5	----

[1] Figures are not given for some industries to avoid disclosure of information concerning individual establishments. They are, however, included where practicable in "all manufacturing," in "all nonmanufacturing," and in the various industry groups.

[2] No decreases reported.

*Approximate—based on previous month's sample.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

MAY 1941

Civilian Conservation Corps

Annual report of Director of Civilian Conservation Corps, fiscal year ended June 30, 1940. Washington, Federal Security Agency, 1940. 87 pp., charts, pasters.

The Civilian Conservation Corps, what it is, what it does. Washington, U. S. Civilian Conservation Corps, 1941. 13 pp.; processed.

A series of questions and answers on life and work in the Civilian Conservation Corps, enrollment, training, etc.

Now they are men: The story of the CCC. By James J. McEntee, Director, Civilian Conservation Corps. Washington, National Home Library Foundation, 1940. 69 pp.

Describes the CCC work program, the camps, education, training, and other matters, and evaluates results.

CCC foremanship. Washington, U. S. Forest Service, Division of CCC Enrollee Training, 1939. 90 pp., illus.

This handbook contains basic information for the training of CCC supervisory personnel. It was prepared for use by CCC field officials and also as a guide for group study in the camps and as a basis for discussion in weekly foremen's meetings.

Cooperative Movement

Organization and management of consumers' cooperatives and buying clubs. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 106 pp. (Bull. No. 665; revision of Bull. No. 598.)

The law of the organization and operation of cooperatives. By Israel Packel. Albany, N. Y., Matthew Bender & Co., Inc., 1940. 307 pp.

An exhaustive treatise on the law and court decisions as they affect cooperative associations of all types. A large proportion of the court decisions cited relate to farmers' marketing and processing cooperatives.

Cooperation in the building of homes. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 30 pp., plans, illus. (Serial No. R. 1224, reprint from February 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Cooperative purchasing of farm supplies in Georgia. By Gerald M. Francis. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1940. 38 pp., charts, illus. (Circular C–120.)

Outlines the methods of operation of the agricultural purchasing associations and gives statistics (mainly for the year 1938–39).

Cooperative purchasing of farm supplies in West Virginia. By M. A. Abrahamsen. Morgantown, W. Va., West Virginia University, 1940. 76 pp., charts, illus. (Agricultural Experiment Station bull. 297.)

Contains a general account of the historical background and present development of cooperative purchasing by farmers in West Virginia, but most of the report is devoted to an analysis of the method of operation and financial status of the Cooperative Farm Services, a wholesale cooperative doing both marketing and distributive business.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in this list, except those issued by the Bureau itself. For all others, please write to the respective publishing agencies mentioned.

Three principles of agricultural cooperation. By Ward W. Fetrow. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1940. 9 pp., charts. (Circular E–24.)

The three principles dealt with in this pamphlet are those of democratic control, limited return on capital, and return of savings to participants in proportion to patronage.

Credit unions in Canada. By A. H. Turner. (In Economic Annalist, Department of Agriculture, Ottawa, December 1940, pp. 84–88, and February 1941, pp. 4–8.)

Two articles, the first of which gives a summary table containing the principal provisions of credit-union laws of the various Provinces of Canada, and the second, statistics of operation for 1939 and partial data for 1940.

Peoples banks in South Africa. By E. H. D. Arndt. Pretoria, [1940?]. 42 pp. (Publications of University of Pretoria, Series No. III: Arts and social sciences No. 10.)

Describes in detail the origin and development of each of the principal peoples banks in South Africa, and points out ways in which they deviate from cooperative practice.

Cost and Standards of Living

Family expenditures in selected cities, 1935–36: Volume III, Clothing and personal care; Volume IV, Furnishings and equipment; Volume VIII, Changes in assets and liabilities. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 578, 227, 194 pp. (Bull. No. 648, Vols. III, IV, VIII; Study of consumer purchases, Urban technical series.)

Volumes II, Food, V, Medical care, and VI, Travel and transportation, have also been published; volumes I, Housing, and VII, Miscellaneous expenditures, are in process of being printed.

Effects of rising costs on quality of wearing apparel. By Laura Mae Brown. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1257, reprint from February 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Maintenance of fair rents during the emergency. Washington, U. S. National Defense Advisory Commission, Consumer Division, 1941. 12 pp.; mimeographed. (Bull. No. 7.)

Suggested emergency fair rent legislation—a report. Washington, U. S. National Defense Advisory Commission, Consumer Division, 1941. 21 pp. (Bull. No. 10.)

Gives the text of a proposed law to provide a procedure which will protect tenants in defense areas from exorbitant rents, prevent disruptive rent increases, and, at the same time, assure fair and reasonable rents to landlords.

International comparisons of food costs. By Robert M. Woodbury. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, Canada, February 1941, pp. 153–173.)

Describes the author's "group basket" method of making international comparisons of food costs, developed by him in the course of preparing a report for the International Labor Office.

Living costs in Canada, 1940 (with detailed statement on construction of Dominion Bureau of Statistics cost-of-living index). Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1941. 11 pp.; mimeographed.

An article on the new cost-of-living index for Canada, based on data in the Canadian Labor Gazette of October 1940, was published in the January 1941 Monthly Labor Review.

Education and Training

Workers' education today. By Mark Starr. New York, League for Industrial Democracy, 1941. 48 pp.

Deals with the activities and accomplishments of the labor movement in the field of education.

Training employees intensively. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policyholders Service Bureau, [1941?]. 28 pp.; mimeographed.

The study is concerned especially with the training of skilled and semiskilled factory workers and shows the value of selecting employees for specific training, of employing trained instructors, and of the greater use of public educational facilities.

Educational objectives in vocational agriculture. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1940. 14 pp. (Vocational Division monograph No. 21.)

The monograph is intended for use as a guide in developing vocational education programs in agriculture.

The selection and development of prospective foremen. By John W. Riegel. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Bureau of Industrial Relations, 1941. 69 pp. (Bull. No. 11.)

Information from executives in 20 leading companies regarding their objectives and plans for the training of new supervisors forms the basis of this survey. The need for properly trained supervisors has been emphasized by the national defense program, as many companies, because of the depression, had neglected to develop prospective foremen. The study deals with the responsibilities of foremen and subforemen, selection of candidates for training, helping candidates to understand supervisory problems, and developing candidates' managerial skills and improving their personality traits.

Defense training for public employees: The status of in-service training programs. By Roy H. Owsley. Chicago, American Municipal Association, 1940. 67 pp. (Report No. 144.)

The study covers defense training for municipal employees in the several States, and a 1940 survey of public-service training programs, including college and university training and in-service training by Federal and State agencies.

Research methods in public administration. By John M. Pfiffner. New York, Ronald Press Co., 1940. 447 pp. (Political science series.)

Designed for teachers' use in training public administrators.

Leaders for adult education. By Harry A. Overstreet and Bonaro W. Overstreet. New York, American Association for Adult Education, 1941. 202 pp.

Discusses the qualities of the adult education leader and the scope of leadership and methods of training.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Current references on national health and the defense program. Compiled by Margaret T. Prince. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1941. 12 pp.; mimeographed.

War Medicine, Volume 1, Number 1. Chicago, American Medical Association, January 1941. 142 pp.

First number of a publication devoted to the specialistic aspects of medical practice involved in the care of men in training and in service in the Army, Navy, and Air service.

Cancer mortality in the United States: III, Geographic variation in recorded cancer mortality for detailed sites, for an average of the years 1930–32. By Mary Gover. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1940. 81 pp., charts. (Public health bull. No. 257.)

The data, based on the 1930 census, show that cancer mortality varies in different sections of the country, ranging from 127 per 100,000 population in Rhode Island to 56 in Arkansas. In general, cancer mortality is lower in the colored than in the white race although it is higher for certain specific sites. Mortality rates for all cancer are highest in large cities, lowest in rural areas, and intermediate in smaller cities for the country as a whole and for each of six geographic sections.

Mercurialism and its control in the felt-hat industry. By Paul A. Neal and others. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1941. 132 pp., bibliography, diagrams, illus. (Public health bull. No. 263.)

The study covered 534 hatters in five representative felt-hat factories, and included medical examination of the workers, a study of working conditions, suggested changes in the present exhaust systems, and changes in industrial practices necessary to control excessive exposures to mercury in the various processes. A total of 59 cases of chronic mercurialism were found.

Annual report of Saranac Laboratory for Study of Tuberculosis, Edward L. Trudeau Foundation, for year 1940. Saranac Lake, N. Y., [1941?]. Various paging.

Includes a paper on the pathology and roentgenographic manifestations of pneumoconiosis, and one on the settling characteristics of various inorganic dusts.

Pulmonary diseases in the mining industry. By R. R. Sayers, M. D. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1941. 26 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (Information circular No. 7146.)

Review of various studies of respiratory diseases in the mining industry, including data on their incidence and prevention.

Heil hunger! Health under Hitler. By Martin Gumpert, M. D. Translated from the German by Maurice Samuel. New York and Toronto, Alliance Book Corporation, Longmans, Green & Co., 1940. 128 pp.

The author of this book states that it is based exclusively on Nazi sources. It deals with the effect of the Nazi regime on the health of the German people. The conclusion is reached that during the 6 years covered by the study, in which the German people have lived under what amount to wartime conditions, the effect of these conditions has been to produce such a weakened physical state that it is doubtful that from a physical standpoint they can endure much more privation.

Housing and Construction Activities

Farm Security Administration housing projects. (In Architectural Forum, Philadelphia, Pa., January 1941, pp. 2–16; plans, illus.)

The article describes the housing construction by the Farm Security Administration in migratory labor camps and on subsistence homesteads in Arizona and California.

First annual report of Federal Works Agency, fiscal year ended June 30, 1940. Washington, 1940. 451 pp., illus.

A chapter deals with the U. S. Housing Authority's activities and an appendix shows the status of building operations in connection with low-cost housing of this agency.

Some problems in housing and rehabilitation in Detroit. By E. S. Wengert. Detroit, Mich., Detroit Bureau of Governmental Research, Inc., 1940. 22 pp.; mimeographed. (Wayne University, School of Public Affairs and Social Work, Report No. 26.)

Urges recognition of need for coordinating public action, and deals with specific problems such as land assembly and zoning.

Report of State Commissioner of Housing to Governor and Legislature of State of New York. New York, 1941. 42 pp., illus. (Legislative document, 1941, No. 60.)

Touches on defense housing as it affects the whole low-cost housing program. Contains reports on activities of individual housing authorities in New York State.

The State [Argentina] provides economical dwellings for the working classes. (In Argentine News, Buenos Aires, February 1, 1941, pp. 5–8, illus.; in English.)

Shows total public expenditures for low-cost housing, the number and kind of units, and rental rates.

Annual report of building permits issued in Canada, 1940. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1941. 25 pp., chart.

Wartime housing in Canada. By F. W. Nichols, Director of Housing. (In Architectural Forum, Philadelphia, Pa., December 1940, pp. 493–496; plans, illus.)

Reviews provisions of housing legislation in Canada, describes and illustrates 3 typical houses built there since outbreak of the present war, and compares housing problems in Canada and the United States. Control of rents by the Canadian Government is also discussed.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Coal-mine disasters in 1940. By Max D. Kossoris. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, March 1941, pp. 1–3.)

What do I get for my money? An employer's views on safety services of governmental agencies. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1940. 11 pp.

Twenty-fourth annual report of United States Employees' Compensation Commission, July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940. Washington, 1941. 77 pp.

Reviews operations under the four laws, administered by the Employees' Compensation Commission, providing compensation for injuries suffered, while in per-

formance of their duty, by civil employees of the United States Government, by certain maritime employees, by employees in certain employments in District of Columbia, and by certain employees (for traumatic injury) on Federal emergency work projects.

Court decisions on workmen's compensation law [in New York State], July 1935—September 1940, all subjects. Albany, N. Y., State Department of Labor, 1940. 606 pp. (Special bull. No. 204.)

Legal provisions for second injuries under workmen's compensation laws. By George Lavos. (In Outlook for the Blind, New York, December 1940, pp. 155–163.)

Industrial Relations

Changes in government control of labor. By Cleow O. Swayzee. (In Social Education, Washington, D. C., February 1941, pp. 94–98.)

Citizens' committees: Their role in industrial conflict. By Louis G. Silverberg. (In Public Opinion Quarterly, Princeton, N. J., March 1941, pp. 17–37; also reprinted.)

Summary and interpretation of information on the role of "citizens' committees," "law and order leagues," and similar groups as affecting civil liberties and the rights of labor.

The Wagner Act: Employer and employee relations. By Charles M. Bufford. Rochester, N. Y., Lawyers Co-operative Publishing Co., 1941. lvii, 1044 pp.

The volume is divided into 6 parts dealing, respectively, with the act in American life; constitutional aspects; substantive law; power and procedure of Labor Board; The Board order and court decree; remedies and actions in courts.

Report of Fair Labor Standards Commission made to 1941 General Assembly of North Carolina. [Raleigh ?], Fair Labor Standards Commission, 1941. 28 pp.

This Commission was appointed to study the effects of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act in the State. The present report summarizes this law as well as State legislation and deals with resultant conditions in North Carolina.

Handling labor grievances in bituminous coal industry. By Frank G. Smith. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XIX, No. 3, New York, spring 1941, pp. 352–363.)

Following a brief history of the background of existing collective agreements in the industry, the paper deals primarily with actual grievances arising out of relations between capital and labor.

Collective bargaining agreements: The seniority clause. (In Columbia Law Review, New York, February 1941, pp. 304–317.)

Discussion of the problems of the courts in the handling of the seniority clause in collective-bargaining agreements.

Industry Reports

Pennsylvania anthracite. By M. Van Siclen, L. Mann, J. R. Bradley. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1940. 32 pp., chart. (Reprinted from Minerals Yearbook, 1940.)

Contains statistics of employment, days worked, labor disputes, and output per man per day, in 1938, and of average weekly earnings in 1939, in the Pennsylvania anthracite industry.

Primer of problems in the millinery industry. By Mary V. Robinson. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1941. 47 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 179.)

This popular version of a technical study by the Women's Bureau of conditions in the millinery industry in the United States was prepared for distribution among employees in the industry and for use among interested civic groups. A summary of the report of the technical study (U. S. Women's Bureau Bull. No. 169) appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for August 1939 (p. 350).

Conditions in Puerto Rican needlework industry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 7 pp. (Serial No. R. 1229, reprint from December 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

The newsprint paper industry—an economic analysis. By John A. Guthrie. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1941. xxiii, 274 pp., bibliography, charts. (Harvard economic studies, vol. 68.)

The main problem set by the author for consideration is interregional competition. In his analysis of this subject, he discusses wage costs and points out that

wage rates in newsprint mills differ significantly in the several areas, but emphasizes the fact that wage costs per ton do not vary in the same way as wage rates. The main problems of the industry are described as excess capacity over capitalization, heavy bonded indebtedness, and rigid costs.

The petroleum industry—an economic survey. By Ronald B. Shuman. Norman, Okla., University of Oklahoma Press, 1940. 297 pp., charts.

Problems in personnel management and labor relations in the petroleum industry are dealt with.

The modern railway. By Julius H. Parmelee. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1940. 730 pp., charts.

By director of Bureau of Railway Economics of Association of American Railroads. A general account of the railroad system, with emphasis on the business aspects. Four of the 37 chapters deal with labor and industrial relations.

Labor Organizations and Activities

The International Association of Fire Fighters. By James Joseph Gibbons. (In International Fire Fighter, Washington, D. C., September 1940, Part 2; 28 pp., bibliography.)

The International Photo-Engravers' Union. By Edward L. Volz. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, February 1941, pp. 1–4; illus.)

Labor union research departments. By Solomon Barkin. (In Personnel Journal, New York, February 1941, pp. 290–299.)

Organized labor in the war. By John Price. New York, Allen Lane, Penguin Books, 1940. 176 pp.

Deals with the development of trade unions in Great Britain, their relation to the Government, emergency legislation, and wartime committees.

His Majesty's opposition: Structure and problems of the British Labor Party, 1931–1938. By Dean E. McHenry. Berkeley, University of California Press, 1940. 320 pp.

Traces the development of the British Labor Party, discusses its chief personalities and their approach to their tasks, and summarizes the political aspirations of the Party and the chances for success. One chapter deals with the Cooperative Party (organized in 1917 to protect the legal interests of the consumers' cooperative movement) and its relations with the Labor Party.

Personnel and Industrial Management

The fields of personnel work. By John G. Darley and Ralph F. Berdie. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1941. 48 pp., illus. (Occupational monograph No. 20.)

The need for personnel work in various fields, including schools and colleges, industry, and Government service, is discussed, and the types of service rendered by personnel departments, qualifications and training of personnel workers, and job opportunities and salaries are outlined.

What's new in personnel and industrial relations: Proceedings of Personnel and Industrial Relations Institute held at Purdue University, April 30 and May 1, 1940. Lafayette, Ind., Purdue University, Engineering Extension Department, 1940. 78 pp. (Extension series No. 48; Personnel bull. No. 5.)

Effects of unionism on personnel management. Surveys made by the 1940 class in personnel management, University of Toledo. Toledo, Ohio, University of Toledo, Bureau of Business Research, 1940. 14 pp.; mimeographed. (Bull. 15.)

Retail personnel relations. By O. Preston Robinson. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1940. 565 pp.

Deals with all phases of personnel relations in the retail field, including personnel policies; job analysis, description, and classification; sources of labor supply; employment procedure and operation; wage plans and incentives; training; employment stabilization; and employee participation in various store activities.

Papers from annual conference of Society for the Advancement of Management, December 1940. (In Advanced Management, New York, January–March 1941; 48 pp.)

What management and labor want from each other, education and training of workers, and problems of accelerated production, were among the subjects of papers presented at the conference.

Ten articles on scientific management experience, yesterday and today, in peace and defense. (In Advanced Management, New York, October–December 1940, pp. 147–191.)

This issue of Advanced Management is a memorial number in honor of Frederick W. Taylor, popularly known as "the father of scientific management." The articles presented include one on increased production for defense needs and one on labor and management under the defense emergency.

Middle management: The job of the junior administrator. By Mary C. Niles. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1941. 270 pp.

The author discusses the job of junior administrator in business organizations, including management methods and relations between superior officers and the general staff. The appendix contains a clerical job classification.

Public personnel administration in Brazil. By Ary C. Fernandes. (In Personnel Administration, Washington, D. C., September 1940, pp. 4–7.)

In this article the chief of the social assistance division, office of personnel, Brazilian Department of Agriculture, describes the Government's method of handling its public-service personnel problems through the psychological-physiological approach.

Prices and Price Control

Machine tool prices [wholesale], January 1937–January 1941. By Harry W. Ronemus. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 22 pp., chart; processed.

City index numbers of retail food prices, 1935–1940. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1941. 4 pp.; mimeographed.

Presents figures for 8 Canadian cities—Halifax, Saint John, Montreal, Toronto, Winnepeg, Saskatoon, Edmonton, and Vancouver.

Price movements [in Canada] in 1940. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1941. 5 pp.; mimeographed.

Gives wholesale, retail, and security price index numbers, and exchange rates.

Government price control in first world war. By Stella Stewart. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 15 pp. (Serial No. R. 1256, reprint from February 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

State price control legislation. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Marketing Laws Survey, 1940. lxvii, 558 pp.

Volume 2 in the Marketing Laws Survey series of WPA publications. Part 1, on regulation of price competition, gives legislation, by State, on resale price maintenance, prohibition of sales below cost, antidiscrimination legislation; part 2, on special price legislation, gives legislation, by State, on administrative price control, price fixing, and miscellaneous price practices.

A guide to collecting, describing, and summarizing price data, with particular reference to historical series of local market prices. By Arthur G. Peterson. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, August 1940. 32 pp.; mimeographed.

Relief Measures and Statistics

A selected list of recent references on Federal and State grants-in-aid, including a section on education. Compiled by Grace Hadley Fuller. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, September 4, 1940. 28 pp.; mimeographed.

"Training" and "work projects" for National Youth Administration project workers. By John W. Studebaker. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1940. 12 pp.; mimeographed. (Service bulletin on defense training in vocational schools, No. 1.)

The respective functions of the U. S. Office of Education and the National Youth Administration in youth-training projects and work projects are defined in the report.

Report of Joint Legislative Fact-Finding Committee on Employment [*California*]. Sacramento, 1940. 317 pp.

The report contains the recommendations of the committee for a coordinated program dealing with employment, unemployment, and State aid of every type. Various specific recommendations were made, including extension of public works, mobilizing business interests to develop new products and new markets in order to provide more jobs, and the return of relief administration to the counties.

State-local fiscal relations in Illinois. Edited by Simeon E. Leland. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1941. 453 pp. (Social science studies, No. 38.)

This study of intergovernmental fiscal relations deals, among other questions, with problems associated with the provision of educational facilities and welfare and unemployment relief.

Government and the needy: A study of public assistance in New Jersey. By Paul Tutt Stafford. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1941. 328 pp., charts.

In three parts, the first dealing with the historical background, the second with the present system, and the third with a program for the future. Covers largely the broader aspects of legislative policy and administrative organization.

Topics for research concerning public assistance programs. By John Charnow. Washington, Social Science Research Council, Committee on Social Security, 1941. 72 pp.; processed. (Pamphlet series, No. 6.)

Outline of certain subjects on which there is a dearth of information and of aspects which need particular attention from research workers. Among the subjects listed are housing for public assistance recipients, effects of public assistance on almshouses, effects of old-age assistance on old people's homes, and boarding and rooming houses for the aged.

Determination of needs bill [*Great Britain*]. Memorandum by Assistance Board. London, 1941. 6 pp. (Cmd. 6247.)

Outlines the new regulations governing the determining of needs and the assessment of needs both for unemployment assistance and supplementary pensions which will be necessary for the Assistance Board to submit if the bill becomes law in essentially its present form.

Social Security

Social security yearbook for calendar year 1939. Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, 1940. 271 pp., charts.

Includes a summary of significant events in the development of the social security program in each year from 1934 to 1939, and an analysis of the scope and operations of each branch of social insurance, with statistical data.

Fifth annual report of Social Security Board, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1939, with supplementary data, July 1–October 31, 1940. Washington, 1941. 208 pp., charts.

The report contains a summary of the activities in each branch of the insurance and assistance systems. The appendixes contain information on administrative organization and tabular statements of expenditures and coverage.

An outline of foreign social insurance and assistance laws. Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1940. 62 pp. (Bureau report No. 5.)

The bulletin consists of four charts giving the principal provisions of the different social insurance systems of each country, with a brief explanatory text for each chart.

An insurance accounting for 1940. Albany, N. Y., Insurance Department, 1941. 98 pp., chart.

Covers all types of insurance in the State of New York, including industrial insurance and group insurance, with information regarding an investigation of the underwriting practices of insurance companies writing workmen's compensation insurance.

Life insurance among low-income families. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 1230, reprint from December 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Combating the loan shark. (In Law and Contemporary Problems, Vol. VIII, No. 1, Duke University School of Law, Durham, N. C., 1941; 206 pp.)

Symposium of articles on various aspects of the loan-shark problem, including usury laws, small-loan laws, collection and other tactics of illegal and unregulated lenders, and organization of public opinion for effective measures against loan sharks.

Unemployment Insurance and Relief

State unemployment compensation laws, October 1, 1940. Summarized by Alfred Acee. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 11 pp. (Serial No. R. 1213, reprint from November 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Compensation for unemployment during industrial disputes. By K. Pribram. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 1231, reprint from December 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Unemployment relief in labor disputes—California's experience. By Leigh Athearn (In Social Service Review, Chicago, Ill., December 1940, pp. 627–654.)

Analysis and evaluation of the policy of the California State Relief Administration in regard to relief payments to persons engaged in or affected by labor disputes.

Report on experience rating. Baltimore, Md., Unemployment Compensation Board, 1941. 65 pp.; mimeographed.

The report, which is based on Maryland experience under the unemployment-compensation law, does not recommend the enactment of experience-rating legislation for the State.

Report of New York State Unemployment Insurance Advisory Council for year 1940. [Albany], 1941. In 2 parts, 24 pp. and 20 pp.; mimeographed.

The first part of the report reviews the operations of the Division of Placement and Unemployment Insurance during 1940 and discusses certain administrative problems; the second part presents some recommendations for immediate legislative action and discusses the issues of fundamental policy and principle which must be resolved before embarking on a program of wider scope.

Tenth annual report of Under Secretary, Department of Labor and Industry, Queensland, for year ended June 30, 1940. Brisbane, 1940. 11 pp.

Covers operations and proceedings under the Income (State Development) Tax Acts, 1938 to 1939, showing the employment schemes undertaken and expenditures.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Average hourly earnings in drug, medicine, and toilet preparations industry. By Sidney C. Sufrin. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 19 pp. (Serial No. R. 1252, reprint from April 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Hourly earnings in enameled-utensil industry, August 1940. By Sidney C. Sufrin. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 18 pp. (Serial No. R. 1238, reprint from March 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Earnings and hours in portable-lamp and lamp-shade industries, February and March 1940. By Sidney C. Sufrin. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 15 pp. (Serial No. R. 1204, reprint from January 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Earnings and hours in leather and leather belting and packing industries, 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 56 pp., illus. (Bull. No. 679.)

Salaries and hours of labor in municipal fire departments, July 1, 1938: Volume IV, West North Central cities; Volume V, South Atlantic cities. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 28 and 32 pp. (Bull. No. 684, Vols. IV, V.)

Volume I, New England cities, and volume VIII, Mountain Division cities, have also been published; volumes II, Middle Atlantic cities, III, East North Central cities, VI, East South Central cities, VII, West South Central cities, and IX, Pacific Division cities, are in process of being printed.

Salaries, hours, and working conditions in police departments of the United States. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 16 pp., chart. (Serial No. R. 1253, reprint from April 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Summary data from a Nation-wide survey, results of which are being made available, by geographic division, in a series of volumes comprising Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 685.

Minimum wages and hours of labor in Hawaii as of June 30, 1940. Honolulu, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1940. 45 pp., charts; mimeographed.

The study covered the minimum rates paid in 32 occupational groups by 3,127 employers in the Territory of Hawaii, and the number of hours worked by individuals receiving these rates. The number of employees receiving the minimum rates is not shown as employers reported only on the lowest rate paid in each job classification in their establishments.

Occupations and salaries in Federal employment. By Malcolm L. Smith and Kathryn R. Wright. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 20 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1207, reprint from January 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Changes in salaries in Great Britain, 1924–1939. By Joan G. Marley and H. Campion. (In Journal of Royal Statistical Society, Vol. 103, part 4, London, 1940, pp. 524–533.)

Data on salaries paid to different classes of salaried persons in 1938, and index numbers of changes in salary rates from 1924 to 1939, summarizing preliminary results of two surveys made by the University of Manchester.

Wage-earner plans in Chicago. (In University of Chicago Law Review, Chicago, December 1940, pp. 106–113.)

Based mainly on the files of cases handled under Chapter XIII of the Chandler Act, which provides a means to assist wage earners in the lower income brackets in adjusting and liquidating their debts.

Wartime Conditions and Emergency Control Measures

Labor and national defense: A survey of the special labor problems arising from America's defense activities and a program for action. The factual findings, by Lloyd G. Reynolds; the program, by Labor Committee, Twentieth Century Fund. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1941. 130 pp.

The report presents the findings of an emergency survey, begun in the late summer of 1940, of labor policy under the defense program. The factual findings form the basis for the recommendations of the Fund's Labor Committee, which advocates several specific measures for the avoidance of labor disputes.

Studies in war economics. Montreal, Canada, International Labor Office, 1941. 199 pp. (Studies and reports, Series B, No. 33.)

Collection of studies dealing with war and postwar economic problems. Among them are monographs on wages, control of food prices, and housing policy.

Wartime labor in China. By S. K. Sheldon Tso. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1941. 5 pp. (Serial No. 1258, reprint from February 1941 Monthly Labor Review.)

Some experience of economic control in wartime. By Sir William Beveridge. London, Oxford University Press, 1940. 38 pp. (Barnett House papers, No. 23.)

Reviews and evaluates methods of control used by Great Britain in the war of 1914–18 and contrasts them with those in effect at present, showing the differences in the problems and the timing of economic action.

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